DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 219 951 FL 013 137

TITLE Elementary Language Development Handbook for Students with Limited Proficiency in English. Curriculum Support Series.
INSTITUTION Manitoba Dept. of Education, Winnipeg.
PUB DATE 81
NOTE 217p.

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC09 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Class Activities; Content Area Reading; *Educational Games; Elementary Education; Elementary School Curriculum; *English (Second Language); Language Acquisition; Learning Activities; Lesson Plans; *Limited English Speaking; *Multicultural Education; Second Language Instruction; *Second Language Learning; Story Telling; *Teaching Guides; Testing

ABSTRACT

This handbook was developed to suggest an approach for language development in the elementary school that uses existing curricula and the child's experiences to help students develop the language skills necessary for success in school and society. After an introductory chapter on the theories of language learning and teaching, the guide provides: (1) sample units in language and content subject areas; (2) a discussion of multiculturalism and its application in the classroom; (3) a discussion of language assessment for teachers; (4) information for administrators on assessment and placement of limited English proficiency children; and (5) a collection of additional language development activities. The section on sample units covers the major portion of the guide. The units demonstrate how to choose an appropriate context for activities, the linguistic content, and meaningful activities. The sample units are story-telling at the primary level and a science unit at the intermediate level. In this section, as well as in the remainder of the guide where appropriate, numerous activities are described, many worksheets suitable for reproduction are provided, and learning and testing activities are described in detail. A list of resources concludes the volume. (AMH)

**********
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
**********

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☒ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official NIE position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Manitoba Dept. of Education

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The Department of Education wishes to express its appreciation and thanks to the following persons who have contributed so generously of their time and expertise in the preparation of the Handbook.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Terry Erdelyi-Banas | - | Winnipeg S.D. No. 1 |
| Mary Fabris - Secretary | - | Winnipeg S.D. No. 1 |
| Faye Kreger | - | Fort Garry S.D. No. 5 |
| Norman Lee | - | River East S.D. No. 9 |
| Helen Leswick | - | Winnipeg S.D. No. 1 |
| Katherine Narozanski | - | Winnipeg S.D. No. 1 |
| Abe Peters | - | Department of Education |
| Peter Podhorodeski | - | Frontier S.D. No. 48 |
| Srini Reddy - Chairman | - | Department of Education |
| Isie Slotin | - | Winnipeg S.D. No. 1 |

The Department of Education further wishes to express its appreciation to the following School Divisions for releasing teachers to work on the Elementary Language Development Handbook Committee.

Fort Garry S. D. No. 5
Frontier S. D. No. 48
River East S. D. No. 9
Winnipeg S. D. No. 1

TABLE OF CONTENTS


| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Introduction | | 1 |
| Chapter One: | Theories of Language Learning and Teaching | 5 |
| Chapter Two: | Sample Units | 13 |
| | Story Telling | 16 |
| | Language Development Through the Use of Subject Area Curriculum | 85 |
| Chapter Three: | Multiculturalism in the Classroom | 122 |
| Chapter Four: | Assessment | 134 |
| Chapter Five: | Information for Administrators | 149 |
| Chapter Six: | Additional Language Development Activities | 158 |
| Resources | | 180 |

# INTRODUCTION

## Rationale

In recent years, educators in elementary schools have become aware of increasing numbers of students whose command of English does not allow them to participate successfully in school and community situations. These may be students who have learned English as a second language or students who have had a limited exposure to English.

Most existing curricula and teaching strategies presuppose certain types of experiences and a certain level of fluency in English. If students with limited English language skills are to participate successfully in the regular program of instruction, certain modifications in teaching procedures must be made. The purpose of this handbook is to suggest an approach for language development in the elementary school which uses existing curricula and the child's experiences to help students develop the language skills necessary for success in school and community.

This handbook will be of particular interest to:

| | |
|---|---|
| 1. Regular Classroom Teachers | who teach students who have a limited command of English |
| 2. Resource Teachers | who are responsible for planning and implementing language programs for students with a limited command of English |
| 3. ESL Teachers | who help students who are learning English as a second language become fully functional in the regular school program |
| 4. Administrators | who have the responsibility to facilitate the organization, implementation and evaluation of programs to meet the needs of students with a limited command of English |

## The Student Population

Students function at various levels of language competence. This range of language competence can be illustrated on a continuum:

| Level 1 | Level 2 | Level 3 | Level 4 | Level 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| No English | Survival English | Transitional English | Fully Functional | |

Level 1 - Students with little or no knowledge of English.

Level 2 - Students with English for survival in informal situations. These students are able to function in basic oral communication situations, but benefit only minimally from regular classroom instruction.

Level 3 - Students with some English for academic purposes. These students are able to function in the classroom situation, but require considerable assistance.

Level 4 - Students almost fully functional in English. These students are able to function in the regular classroom situation with some assistance, but have still not attained a level of language adequate for their grade level.

Level 5 - Students fully functional in English at or above their grade level.

This handbook addresses the needs of students in levels 1 through 4.

## Goals

Public schools in Manitoba must provide all students with reasonable opportunities to realize the broad goals of public education. Learning goals for elementary students stress the development of students' skills in communication, mathematics, science and the arts in order to promote personal growth and development and responsible citizenship. These goals are best achieved in an environment which recognizes the developmental needs of all children; the unique manner in which each child learns; the importance of school programs responding to both individual needs and societal expectations; and the central role of the teacher in promoting a learning environment which nurtures and facilitates students' development as members of a diverse and pluralistic society.

In order for all students to have reasonable opportunities to achieve the broad goals of public education, they must be fully functional in the language of instruction. For students with limited fluency in English these goals are very difficult to attain without special consideration from the school in the area of language learning and culture adaptation. The school can assist students with limited fluency in English by providing opportunities for students to:

1. acquire competence in the English language
2. develop a positive self-image
3. recognize, appreciate and accept their own language and culture and that of others

Aims

1. Students must have positive language learning experiences through which they will have opportunities to acquire basic English language skills. They must be provided with formal and informal opportunities to:

   a) listen with understanding to concepts and ideas
   b) communicate ideas and feelings orally with confidence
   c) decode, comprehend, interpret and appreciate written material appropriate to the student's grade level
   d) write clearly and correctly at an appropriate level.

2. Students must have a positive self-image if they are to succeed in school. They must be provided with opportunities to:

   a) adjust to methods of instruction, discipline and school organization which may differ from previous school experience
   b) work at realistic levels of competence where success can be experienced
   c) work in emotionally secure learning environments
   d) develop habits which contribute to independent problem solving
   e) develop positive ways of dealing with peer groups and adults.

3. Students should have pride and growth within their own cultural group in order to function in the multicultural mainstream of Manitoba's education system. They require opportunities to:

   a) recognize and understand the many forms that culture takes: language, customs, traditions, religion, ethnicity, racial identity, etc.
   b) develop and retain a personal identity through an awareness of their own cultural and historical heritages

c) develop an understanding of and respect for the cultural and historical heritages of others
d) maintain and/or learn heritage languages
e) participate in all aspects of school life
f) become familiar with the immediate community
g) be introduced to the Canadian customs, holidays, institutions, geography and history
h) learn about the Canadian cultural mosaic.

# CHAPTER ONE

# THEORIES OF LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING

## Why Theory?

Many teachers have developed an effective language teaching methodology without a sophisticated knowledge of language theory. On the basis of successful classroom experience, they have selected those strategies which have been most practical and productive. However, not every teacher has the time to engage in this lengthy process of selection. An understanding of the language learning process leads to the development of general principles which give purpose and direction to the teacher's experimentation. It can also help the teacher to identify and deal with the students' linguistic difficulties. For this reason, a brief summary of the major theoretical views of language learning and some implications for the language teacher are given.

## What Does It Mean To Know A Language?

A language is a system of communication which enables its speakers to exchange information, emotions and ideas. Every language is a kind of code which uses verbal symbols to represent concepts shared by the speakers of that language.

The language code is made up of sounds, words and patterns. Sounds are combined into meaningful units or words which name objects or concepts; these words may then be combined into sentences according to the grammatical patterns or structures of a language to express more complex ideas and relationships. The number of sounds, words and patterns in a language is limited, but, once these three aspects of language have been mastered, an infinite number of meanings can be understood and produced.

The proficient speaker of a language makes habitual and automatic use of this code and is often unaware of the complex language patterns and strategies used in producing and receiving meaning. The proficient speaker is also familiar with many varieties of language -- the informal language of the home or playground, the more formal language of the classroom or workplace, and often the highly specialized language of certain jobs or disciplines.

Knowing a language, however, means not only being able to manipulate the code but knowing a culture as well, for even the most basic concepts are shaped by culture. The words for "home" and "family" for example, have

different meanings for speakers of different languages. Knowing a language implies understanding these culture-specific meanings as well as the way in which other speakers of the language perceive and learn about the world, their customs, beliefs and values. It also means knowing the many functions of language including the appropriate verbal and non-verbal behaviours for a variety of situations.

The children with whom this handbook is concerned come to school lacking in one or more aspects of language. Second language learners at a very basic level of language learning may have difficulty simply perceiving and producing English sounds. Some students, including many whose first language is English, may have an inadequate vocabulary. Others may not be sufficiently familiar with the patterns of English to be able to understand words when they are combined into sentences or to produce intelligible sentences of their own. Still others may lack the fluency that comes with frequent opportunities for language use.

Many students for whom English is a second language or whose use of English outside the school is limited, may function well in English in informal situations yet experience difficulty in the school situation because they have never before encountered the more formal language of the classroom or the specialized language of certain subject areas. Children from different cultural backgrounds, including second language learners at all stages of language development, may have difficulty in adapting to the mainstream culture.

## How Does A Child Learn His First Language?

From his earliest moments, the child is surrounded by language and, before he even begins to speak, has had the opportunity to hear a great deal of language. A child's earliest attempts at language are simply sound production or babbling. Later, sounds are combined into words to name familiar people and objects in the environment. The child then begins to combine words into groups to express basic relationships and operations.

Next, grammatical refinements such as noun and verb inflections are added. Eventually, more complex grammatical constructions are acquired to express more complex relationships and ideas.

Language learning is a creative process in which the child, without formal instruction, reconstructs the adult grammar of his language. In doing this, children may use many language learning strategies. At times, children may simply imitate adult models, but the kinds of errors observed in child speech suggest that more complex strategies of selection and generalization are being used. As a child begins to perceive the

regular patterns of a language, he selects those that express what he wants to say, forms hypotheses about the language and then tests them in his speech. For example, errors such as "foots" and "eated" suggest that the child is beginning to make some generalizations about plural and past tense. As others respond to the child's utterances and as his experience with the language increases, the child gradually refines his own language until it has reached adult norms.

A child's progress in language learning is related to cognitive development. As new concepts are acquired, so too are the words and grammatical patterns to express them. Concepts and language are acquired together within the context of situations or experiences. The more stimulating the child's environment, the greater his conceptual and linguistic development. At the same time, enculturation takes place as the child learns to perceive the world as the people around him do.

A child normally spends four to five years acquiring concepts and developing oral language through the environment before starting school and being introduced to the written forms of language. By this time, the child is usually in control of the sound system and most of the basic structures of his language. However, the child whose early experiences and opportunities for language development have been limited, or whose development has been delayed by physical or emotional problems, may come to school without the concepts and linguistic skills which the school expects.

## What About Second Language Learning?

The difficulties experienced by many older second language learners has for a long time led to the belief that first and second language learning are essentially different processes. Many theories were proposed to explain the second language learning process and elaborate teaching methods were devised. While these methods were originally intended for use with adult second language learners, many found their way into classrooms where children were being taught a second language.

The Audio-Lingual Method attempts to replicate the natural language learning process by emphasizing the importance of oral language practice before the introduction of reading and writing activities. Culture is recognized as an important part of language and explanations of various aspects of the target culture are given.

However, the Audio-Lingual Method is based on a view of language as conditioned behaviour and seeks to achieve automatic control of language patterns through the use of intensive repetition and drill techniques. Learners' errors are assumed to be the result of interference from the

native language and every attempt is made to reduce the possibility of errors by avoiding the use of the native language in the classroom and by sequencing the language program to give earliest and most intensive practice to those aspects of the target language most different from native language forms. Grammatical patterns are taught inductively through the manipulation of sample sentences and vocabulary is taught through pictures, demonstration and explanation in the target language. As a result, meanings are often unclear and practice exercises are sometimes little more than mindless repetition.

The Grammar-Translation and Cognitive-Code Methods emphasize the importance of understanding rather than habit formation in language learning. Explanations in the native language are given wherever necessary to clarify grammatical points and vocabulary items before they are practiced in oral and written exercises. While these methods may be appropriate for older learners, the emphasis on translation, grammar and written exercises makes them unsuitable for children learning a second language.

An approach that is becoming increasingly popular in child second language learning is based on the assumption that first and second language learning are similar processes and assumes that given sufficient exposure to the target language in natural communication situations, the language learner will automatically acquire a second language.

## Is Second Language Learning Really Like The First?

The ability of many second language learners to acquire a new language through exposure to informal language learning situations outside the language classroom indicate that first and second language learning are similar processes. Further evidence comes from many errors made by second language learners which resemble the developmental errors made by first language learners and which suggest that the same language learning strategies are still operant. However, there are many important differences between children learning a first language and school-age second language learners.

The second language learner has already gone through the process of learning one language and can, in most cases, already function effectively in one language and culture. As a result, the urgency for acquiring a second means of expression may be diminished. Previous language learning may further complicate the second language learning process because native language forms may interfere with new learning. Further, if the learning of the new language is seen as a threat to the child's self-image or cultural identify, there may be outright resistance to learning the new language.

While a young child has the time to discover the patterns of language himself, the school-age second language learner needs to learn a great deal of language quickly in order to continue his education. He must also learn to read and write in the new language as soon as possible.

The second language learner is also faced with the problem of adjusting to a new culture and way of life, and needs a supportive environment in which to do so. His task is not simply one of learning language but of learning the many culturally-determined meanings and uses of the language as well.

Fortunately, the second language learner is older, has had some experience with language learning and is more advanced in conceptual development. He is also more mature and is able to focus his attention on a task for longer periods of time and can, therefore, benefit from language instruction. Such instruction, however, must consider the nature of the language learning process and help to expedite it.

What Are The Implications For A Language Development Program?

This handbook is concerned with students whose first language is not English, from those with only minimal command of English to those who are nearly fully fluent. It also attempts to address the needs of students who speak English as a first language but who, for a variety of reasons, do not have the language skills necessary for school success. If indeed first and second language learning are similar processes, it should be possible to approach language teaching in a way that will bring all of these students closer to the necessary level of language proficiency.

The approach to language development advocated in this handbook is best described as "pragmatic-electric." This approach, though varied, is not random, for it considers what is known about language and the language learning process. It makes use of techniques from various language teaching methods and applies them to the existing school curriculum.

Motivation is essential to any kind of learning. For the second language learner, motivation will depend upon the quality of his experiences with the new language and culture. He must see language learning and participation in the new culture as both enjoyable and desirable. At the same time, his own language and culture must be respected. He must feel secure in the second language learning environment and be successful in his attempts at language learning if a positive self-image is to be developed and maintained. The non-fluent English speaking child also must be motivated to improve his language through positive language learning experiences which build self-confidence and a feeling of self-worth.

If a child is to exercise his natural language learning ability, a rich linguistic environment must be provided. Children must hear a great deal of language and have many opportunities to use language in contexts of interest and relevance to them. Children must be given reason to speak and encouraged to communicate their ideas and feelings using whatever language they have. While in some situations language errors should be corrected, there must also be times when communication can take place without the inhibition imposed by constant teacher correction. The children's errors should be accepted as a natural part of the language learning process. At the same time, they should be observed and analysed, and used as the basis for planning future lessons or in helping an individual student with a particular problem.

If children are to learn all the varieties of English necessary for survival in school and in the outside world, they must experience language in many different situations. They must learn the many uses of language and experience the language of various social interactions -- talking to adults, shopping, taking the bus, etc. Many such situations exist within the school but often they must be contrived within the classroom, or the children taken out of the school and into the community.

Simply exposing children to language is not sufficient to produce the kinds of language skills necessary for school success. Concrete experiences that will lead to the development of specific concepts and language must be provided. Children from different cultural backgrounds need to begin at a concrete level to acquire the culture-specific meanings of English words and patterns. Non-fluent English speakers, too, need to begin by acquiring the basic concepts upon which language can be built.

Once basic concepts have been grasped, the language to express them must be practiced. While the young child has the time to discover the regular patterns of language on his own, the older language learner may need help in perceiving words and patterns. Experiences must be structured so that selected patterns and vocabulary are repeated frequently enough to become apparent to the learner.

Once these words and patterns have been perceived and their meanings understood, the learner must incorporate them into his own repertoire. Many opportunities for oral language practice within the context of the experience must be provided so that vocabulary and language structures are internalized. The learning environment must be structured so that repetition which takes place naturally during the course of early language development can occur in a natural and meaningful way.

Language which has been practiced orally may then become the basis for reading and writing activities. These activities too must be structured to provide many opportunities for meaningful repetition of selected words and patterns within the context of an experience.

The progression in practice activities is generally from receptive to productive, and from highly structured to less structured activities. Students should have many opportunities to hear new language forms before being asked to repeat them. Similarly, students should be able to recognize and understand words in print before engaging in writing practice. Initial activities, both oral and written, are usually more structured, progressing toward freer expression in both speech and writing. Finally, since one of the aims of language development is fluency, opportunities to practice newly acquired language in other contexts must be provided.

## How Long Does It Take?

Language development proceeds at a different rate in each individual. There are, however, additional factors to consider in second language learning and late development in first language learners.

In general, the amount of time spent using the language and the nature of the program to which the child is exposed will affect the rate of learning. The child whose only exposure to English is in the classroom will not progress as rapidly as one who has many opportunities to use language in other situations. Similarly, the outgoing child who easily forms relationships with other children and adults is likely to progress faster than the shy or withdrawn child.

For second language learners, progress will also be influenced by the quality of the child's experiences with the new environment and with speakers of the new language. Other cultural factors such as learning style and the value which the home places on the target language may also influence the rate of second language learning. Some second language learners are more influenced than others by native language habits and are slower to learn new forms.

While intelligence and second language learning ability are not necessarily related, some individuals do appear to possess a natural aptitude for second language learning.

Slow progress in language development in either first or second language learners may have many causes. A child who is lagging behind his peers in conceptual development or who has more difficulty in grasping new concepts may make slower progress in language learning as well. Illness, problems of speech, vision or hearing, learning disabilities, and emotional problems may also impede the language learning process. The teacher must always be alert to these possibilities in the child whose language development seems unusually slow and seek assistance from the proper agencies.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Chastain, Kenneth. The Development of Modern Language Skills: Theory to Practice. Philadelphia, Pa.: The Centre for Curriculum Development, 1971.

Robinett, Betty Wallace. Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages: Substance and Technique. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1978.

Saville-Troike, Muriel. Foundations for Teaching English as a Second Language: Theory and Method for Multicultural Education. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1976.

# CHAPTER TWO

## SAMPLE UNITS

Language development takes place naturally through a child's experiences outside the classroom. In the school setting, the students' experiences must be expanded to include those which will help them develop the cognitive skills and language necessary for success in school and survival in society. Meaningful contexts which will lead to the development of concepts and opportunities to practice the language skills which accompany these concepts must be provided. Such contexts can be found in all areas of the school curriculum: language arts, mathematics, science, social studies, etc.

In choosing a context for cognitive development, the learners' interests and level of cognitive maturity should be considered. Because students in any classroom function at a variety of cognitive levels from a very basic and concrete level to more advanced levels of abstract thought, activities must be provided to accommodate each student at his own level. This implies that each activity should begin at a concrete level using real objects and first hand experiences whenever possible before more abstract symbols such as pictures, print and speech are introduced.

In choosing the linguistic content, the learners' present level of language must be considered. In some cases, the context will determine the vocabulary and structures selected for practice. In others, the students' need for certain language patterns or the language of a specific situation may dictate the choice of the context. A variety of language activities at different levels must be provided so that all language skills -- listening, speaking, reading and writing -- can be developed. All these activities must take place within a meaningful context and lead to the use of language in free communication situations.

Two examples of the ways in which this may be accomplished are provided in the following sample units:

a) story-telling at the primary level
b) a science unit at the intermediate level

The sample units are based on the model presented in chart form on page 15. This model can be used in the development of similar units in any subject area as follows:

1. After determining the learners' needs and assessing their cognitive and linguistic levels, choose objectives for the unit of work and identify the vocabulary, language structures, and skills required to meet these objectives.

2. Decide upon the most effective and appropriate ways to present them.

3. Select practice activities to reinforce them.

4. Choose culminating activities to provide the learners with the opportunities to use newly acquired language in other situations.

5. At the end of this procedure, use informal or formal assessment techniques to determine to what degree the objectives have been attained.

The chart lists some of the presentation, practice and culminating activities from which the teacher may choose, as well as many of the aids that may be used to enhance all phases of the unit. Activities appropriate for a particular student or group of students must be chosen. While some of the activities are suitable for students only at a particular level, many can be used with all learners but at different levels of complexity. Techniques for assessment are found in a later chapter.

PRESENTATION (16) → PRACTICE (17,33) → CULMINATING ACTIVITIES (18)

ASSESSMENT

Brainstorming (159)
Chant (162)
Demonstration (25)
Discussion (25)
Dramatization (25)
Experiences (85)
Field Trips
Frame Sentences (88,91,115)
Improvisation
Pantomimes
Peoms
Role-Playing (168)
Sentence Strips (27,91)
Song
Story-Telling (16)

Categorizing (160)
Cloze (60)
Crossword Puzzles (65,68)
Dialogues (25)
Discussion (25)
Drills (59)
Expansion (59,92)
Experimenting
Games (165,169,171)
Mazes (65,67)
Poems
Questioning (88,113)
Sentence Combining (60,89,93,118)
Sentence Completion (40)
Sequencing (40)
Song
Substitution (92)
Vanishing Technique (26,92,101)
Word Search (65,70,106)

Reading the story independently. (92,116)
Art work (e.g., wall mural).
Retelling the story orally or in writing. (169)
Reading related stories.
Production of: Poems
Chants (162)
Dialogues
Plays (163)
Puppet Plays (167)
Films
Filmstrips
Tape Recording
Video Recording
Roller Movie (161)
Class and individual booklets (48,158)

ASSESSMENT

AIDS

Books Pictures Puppets Tapes Filmstrips Films Music Songs Experience Charts
Bulletin Board Newspapers Chants Realia Felt Board Flannel Board Flashcards
Magnetic Board Sentence Strips

AIDS

*Numbers in brackets refer to page numbers.

## STORY-TELLING

While stories can be read simply for the enjoyment and pleasure they bring, they can also be a valuable means for developing concepts and language. Stories can expose children to complex structures and vocabulary in meaningful contexts and provide opportunities for developing language skills. As well, they may introduce children to the language of books and foster a love of reading and an appreciation of literature.

For children of limited English proficiency, story-telling is a valuable teaching technique. Story-telling provides opportunities for integrated listening, speaking, reading and writing practice in a meaningful and interesting context. The story-telling technique presented here is most suited to stories which:

- have plot and language suitable to the students' maturity level
- have repetitive elements
- are easily adaptable to more than one language level
- are humorous
- provide opportunities for practicing specific vocabulary and structures
- provide opportunities for developing specific language skills
- are open-ended
- are easily illustrated

The story in this unit is intended for children in the primary grades. However, similar story-telling techniques may be used with older children by choosing stories with content appropriate to their interests.

Story-telling as a language development activity follows a three-step procedure: presentation, practice, culmination.

### Presentation

IN THE PRESENTATION PHASE OF THE LESSON, THE CONTEXT FOR THE STORY IS ESTABLISHED AND COMPREHENSION IS ENSURED. NEW VOCABULARY, STRUCTURES AND THE STORY CHARACTERS ARE INTRODUCED WITHIN THE MEANINGFUL CONTEXT OF THE STORY AND THE STORY IS TOLD.

Effective story-telling requires a multi-dimensional presentation. A set of props related to the story is essential for this type of story telling. As this technique involves telling rather than reading the story, familiarity with the story is essential to a vigorous and enthusiastic presentation.

Before the story is told concepts unfamiliar to the children and which are essential to the understanding of the story could be introduced through the use of real objects, pictures and demonstrations, role-playing, dramatization, and first hand experience. Any props to be used in the telling of the story may be presented and discussed at this time.

Students listen to the initial presentation of the story and participate if they are able. Students and teachers then engage in activities which help the students learn parts of the story. In subsequent tellings of the story, the students participate as much as they can in the story-telling by manipulating the props and joining in on parts of the story without the teacher's help. When appropriate, parts of the story may be introduced in print and read by the students in unison or independently.

While, in the sample unit, distinctive lines have been drawn between the presentation and practice activities, in application there is frequently considerable overlap between these two phases. The emphasis in the presentation stage should be on ensuring comprehension and the students should be encouraged to manipulate the props, to discuss the characters and their actions, and to discuss the new vocabulary using whatever language they have available. It is important that comprehension should not be limited to the literal level but should also include interpretive questions.

Practice Activities

IN THIS PHASE OF THE LESSON, CONCEPTS DEVELOPED IN THE PRESENTATION PHASE ARE REINFORCED AND LANGUAGE SKILLS ARE PRACTICED. ALTHOUGH THE STORY WILL PRESENT A VARIETY OF CONCEPTS, VOCABULARY AND LANGUAGE STRUCTURES, THE INTENTION IN THE PRACTICE ACTIVITIES IS TO FOCUS ON SPECIFIC ITEMS FOR INTENSIVE PRACTICE.

In the practice phase, the concepts and linguistic structures introduced in the presentation phase of the lesson are practiced in a variety of formats. Many of the activities contain an element of repetition. It is important, however, that this repetition be meaningful and challenging so that the students develop and expand their thinking as well as language skills.

Practice activities must also develop the four language skills. Oral practice activities should be followed by reading and writing activities appropriate to the skill level of the learner. Reading and writing activities should not be undertaken, even by more linguistically advanced students, without adequate oral presentation.

With students of limited fluency, the emphasis will be on oral language practice. These students may require a more detailed presentation of vocabulary and concepts, more retelling of the story, and more opportunities to practice selected elements of the story. Reading and writing activities may involve simply reading and copying the vocabulary items or selected parts of the story.

More linguistically advanced students may spend less time on the repetitive aspects of the story and engage in more complex activities such as transformation/substitution, sentence combining or cloze activities based on the language of the story.

Many of the activities such as categorizing, sequencing, simple transformation/substitution can be performed orally by the whole group. When following up with written exercises, students of more limited fluency may simply copy material with which they have become familiar in the oral language activities. More advanced students may engage in writing activities of a more creative nature.

In addition, there are many activities such as singing, chanting, and reciting poems, which can be enjoyed by all members of the class. Students at all levels, perhaps working in pairs, can also benefit from puzzles, mazes and other game-like activities.

Culminating Activities

IN THE CULMINATING PHASE OF THE UNIT, STUDENTS ARE ENCOURAGED TO USE THE NEW VOCABULARY AND STRUCTURES IN LESS STRUCTURED LANGUAGE ACTIVITIES SO THAT THEY BECOME FLUENT IN THEIR USE. ONCE AGAIN, THE ACTIVITIES CHOSEN WILL DEPEND UPON THE LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE OF THE LEARNER.

By the time students have been through the practice activities, they should all be sufficiently familiar with the story and its content to be able to reconstruct the story. For students of very limited language skills, this may mean reconstructing it through mime, retelling or drawing. More advanced students may be able to read the story independently for enjoyment. In addition to retelling the story orally, some may be able to rewrite the story in booklet form combining pictures and printed words.

The culminating activities may take the form of a group project in which students at all levels of language ability may make meaningful contributions. Such projects also develop important skills in decision

making and co-operation. For example, the class as a whole may produce a class booklet based on the story with more linguistically advanced students contributing the text and the others producing illustrations. Combined efforts may also lead to the production of a roller movie or filmstrip.

Similarly all members of the class may contribute to the composition of songs, poems, chants, dialogues, plays or puppet plays based on the story. These may then be recorded on video or audio tape or on film.

An important part of the culminating activities may involve the introduction of stories, songs, poems, etc. with similar themes. Related materials from the content areas might also be introduced.

## THE BIG, BIG TURNIP

The story chosen for this unit is a traditional folk-tale, "The Big, Big Turnip". Its interest level is best suited to children in the primary grades although it could also be used with older children.

Models for the props needed in this unit are presented on pages 23 and 24 Props can be made for a flannel board, magnetic board, pocket chart or back drop although the magnetic board offers the greatest degree of freedom in the manipulation of props.

Objectives

Following is a list of the skills which can be developed through this story and on which objectives can be based.

- Listening Comprehension
- Interpretation
- Comparison
- Pronunciation & Fluency
- Sentence Formation
- Word Recognition
- Sequencing

Vocabulary: (turnip, farmer, wife, daughter, ground, hole, plant, seeds, tall, etc. -- to be selected on the basis of students' language needs).

Patterns:

verb "to be" e.g. "This is a _____." "Is this a _____?" "Yes, it is." "No, it isn't."

verb tenses e.g. "What is he doing?" "He is _____." "What did he do?" "He _____."

comparative adjectives e.g. "The _____ is smaller (larger, taller, etc.) than the _____."

relative clauses e.g. "The farmer called to his wife who was getting dinner."

adjectives e.g. "The _____farmer called to his _____wife."

adverbs e.g. "The farmer called _____to his wife."

In setting specific objectives for a given lesson, the teacher will consider the experience and language level of the students. In a class where students are at different levels of language, the objectives for some students may simply be exposure to certain elements of language while for other students mastery of these elements may be a reasonable objective.

The Big, Big Turnip

A farmer once planted a turnip seed. And it grew, and it grew and it grew. The farmer saw it was time to pull the turnip out of the ground. So he took hold of it and began to pull.

Place the farmer on the board. Have the turnip concealed under a strip of paper which represents the ground. Pull the turnip up as it grows.

He pulled and he pulled and he pulled and he pulled, but the turnip wouldn't come out.

Move the farmer next to the turnip with hands on the turnip top.

So the farmer called to his wife who was getting dinner.

Hold up the cut-out of the wife.

"Help! Help! Do you hear my shout?
I pulled the turnip
But it wouldn't come out."

And the wife came running, and she took hold of the farmer. They pulled and they pulled and they pulled and they pulled but the turnip wouldn't come out.

Place the wife behind the farmer.

So the wife called to the daughter who was feeding the chickens nearby.

Hold up the cut-out of the daughter.

"Help! Help! Do you hear my shout?
We pulled the turnip
But it wouldn't come out."

And the daughter came running. The daughter took hold of the wife. The wife took hold of the farmer. The farmer took hold of the turnip. They pulled and they pulled and they pulled and they pulled, but the turnip wouldn't come out.

Place the daughter behind the farmer's wife.

So the daughter called to the dog who was chewing a bone.

Hold up the cut-out of the dog.

"Help! Help! Do you hear my shout?
We pulled the turnip
But it wouldn't come out."

And the dog came running. The dog took hold of the daughter. The daughter took hold of the wife. The wife took hold of the farmer. The farmer took hold of the turnip. And they pulled and they pulled and they pulled and they pulled, but the turnip wouldn't come out.

Place the dog behind the daughter.

The dog called to the cat who was chasing her tail.

"Help! Help! Do you hear my shout?
We pulled the turnip
But it wouldn't come out."

Hold up the cut-out of the cat.

And the cat came running. The cat took hold of the dog. The dog took hold of the daughter. The daughter took hold of the wife. The wife took hold of the farmer. The farmer took hold of the turnip. And they pulled and they pulled and they pulled and they pulled, but the turnip wouldn't come out.

Place the cat behind the dog.

So the cat called the mouse who was nibbling cheese nearby.

"Help! Help! Do you hear my snout?
We pulled the turnip
But it wouldn't come out."

Hold up the cut-out of the mouse.

And the mouse came running.

"That little mouse can't help," said the dog. "He's too little."

"Phooey," squeaked the mouse. "I could pull that turnip up myself, but since you have all been pulling I'll let you help too."

So the mouse took hold of the cat. The cat took hold of the dog. The dog took hold of the daughter. The daughter took hold of the wife. The wife took hold of the farmer. The farmer took hold of the turnip. And they pulled and they pulled and they pulled and up came the turnip.

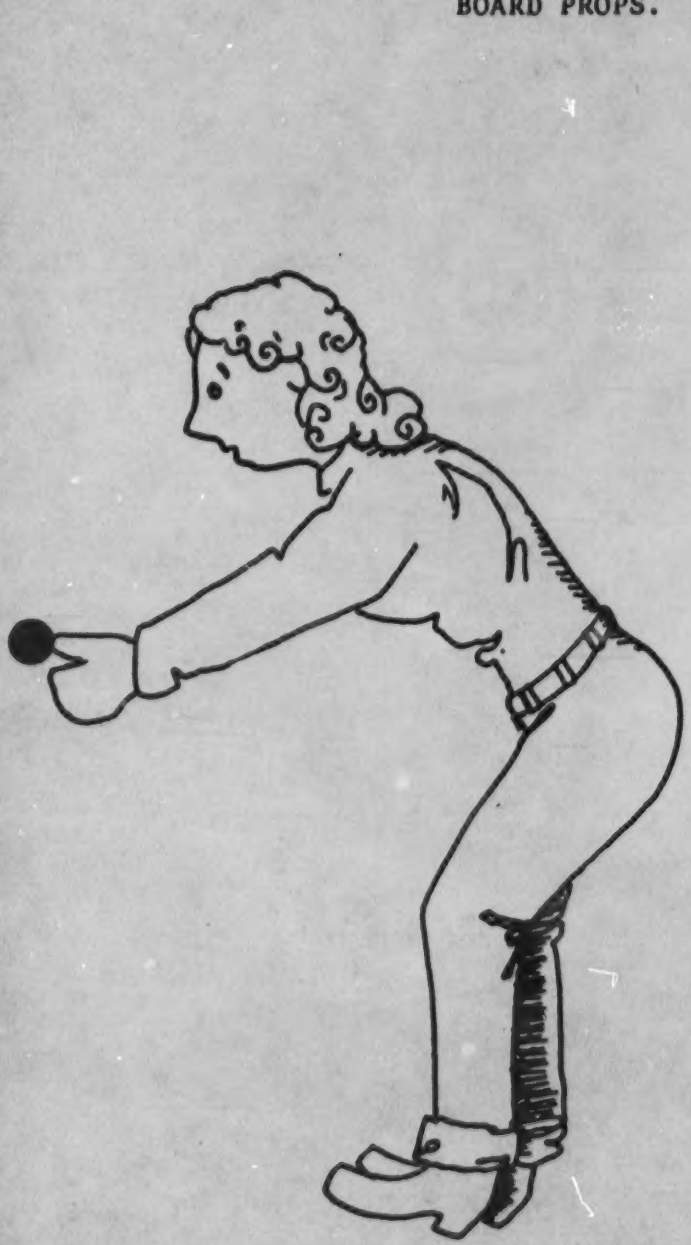
Place the mouse behind the cat.

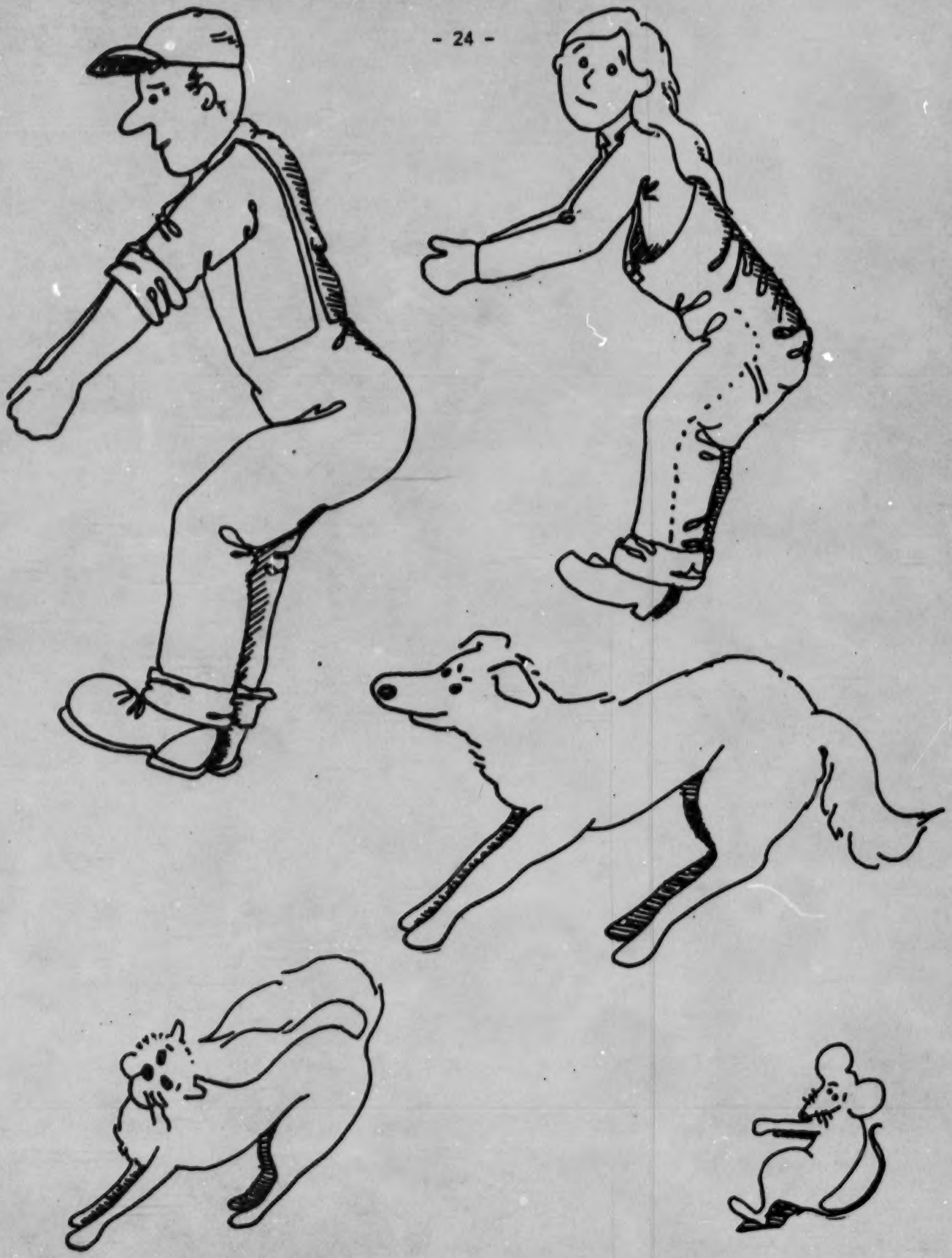
The turnip fell on the farmer. The farmer fell on the wife. The wife fell on the daughter. The daughter fell on the dog. The dog fell on the cat. The cat fell on the ground.

Arrange props so that the turnip is on the farmer, the farmer is on the wife, the wife is on the daughter, etc. Leave the mouse as is.

The mouse ran down the hole and squeaked, "I told you so."

MODELS FOR FELT OR MAGNETIC
BOARD PROPS.





Presentation

1. Before the story is told, concepts and vocabulary which are unfamiliar to the children and essential to the understanding of the story should be introduced. At this point, the focus is on the ideas and concepts being developed rather than the correctness of language.

   Vocabulary should be presented as concretely as possible using real objects, pictures, demonstrations, role-playing, dramatization, or first hand experiences. For example, to establish the meaning of words such as turnip, seeds, ground, hole, plant, etc., bring a turnip to class for observation and discussion. Students could then touch, smell, and taste it. Discussion could follow as to how it is planted, where it grows, what it is used for. Seeds could be planted in containers. Students at more advanced levels could compare it to other vegetables.

   Concepts may be developed in a similar manner. For example, the concept strength, which is important in this story, could be developed through physical activity. Ask a student to lift an object that he cannot possibly lift alone. Encourage the student to ask for help from other members of the class one by one until there are enough students to lift the object. Use vocabulary and sentences similar to those in the story e.g. "Come and help me lift this table."

2. Present the entire story, using props and dramatization for the purposes of listening and enjoyment. Even at this stage, the students can participate by joining in on the repetitive parts of the story.

   The spoken words "Help! Help! .... out." can be put on a card or a speech bubble (page 26) which can be displayed above each character as the words are spoken.

3. Once the students have heard the story, discuss the characters and events. Use literal comprehension questions such as:

   - Who pulled the turnip first, next, etc.?
   - How many people, animals, were there in the story?
   - What did the farmer plant?
   - Where was the mouse...? the turnip?
   - Why did the wife come running?
   - Which is the smallest...? biggest animal in the story?

   Help the students to recall and recite the repetitive parts of the story. This could be accomplished through techniques such as:

   (a) modelling

   e.g. "Help! Help! Do you hear my shout? We pulled the turnip but it wouldn't come out." This could be broken up into meaningful sections, modelled by the teacher and repeated by the students until they are confident in producing the entire passage.

(b) fading

The teacher starts a sentence and encourages the students to complete it. The number of clues may be diminished until the students are able to produce the entire sentence or passage unassisted.

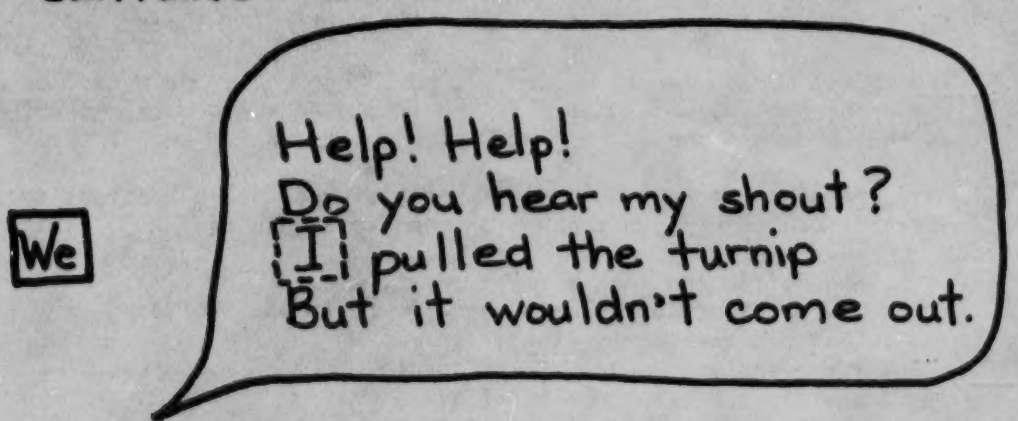
4. Present the story as often as necessary until students can participate comfortably in the repetitive parts of the story. In subsequent tellings, more of the story may be introduced in print on sentence strips (page 27), using the pocket chart. This technique lends itself to the introduction, in print, of other sentences in which a specific pattern is repeated, e.g.

The farmer called to his wife who was getting dinner.

The wife called to the daughter...

## SENTENCE STRIPS

1.



2. The mouse took hold of the cat.

The cat took hold of the dog.

The dog took hold of the daughter.

The daughter took hold of the wife.

Add these one at a time.

The wife took hold of the farmer.

---

Start with these.

The farmer took hold of the turnip.

He pulled and he pulled *

and he pulled and he pulled, *

but the turnip wouldn't come out.

* They they they they

* Cover singular pronouns with plural forms as required.

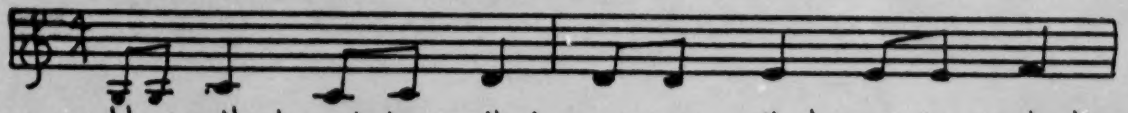
To maintain student interest, vary the format of the story telling. Have students manipulate the props or have different groups repeat different parts of the story. Discuss the story using questions of a more interpretive nature, e.g.

1. How could an animal as little as a mouse help to pull out a turnip.
2. If the turnip had not come out what could the farmer have done?
3. Who is the strongest? Why couldn't he pull out the turnip.
4. What could have happened to the cat after all the others fell on him?
5. Why did the mouse go down the hole?
6. Could this story really happen? Why?
7. How would you feel if someone smaller or younger did something you couldn't do?
8. Does the story remind you of a game or an activity that you took part in? (e.g. tug of war. Describe it.)
9. Did you like this story? Why?
10. What do you think the farmer...., farmer's wife.... said when the turnip came out?

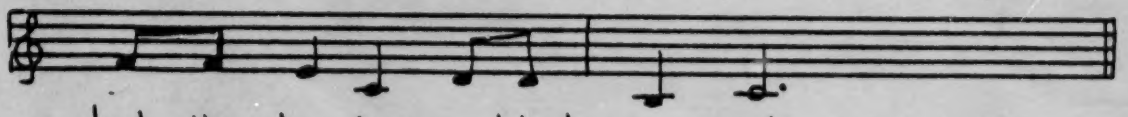
5. Once the students are familiar with the repetitive parts of the story, the song version (pages 29 - 32) of the story may be introduced. Students may sing along with the tape or, by using the pause key, the students can sing the repetitive parts alone.

# The Big, Big Turnip (tapescript)

A farmer once planted a turnip seed. And it grew, and it grew and it grew. The farmer saw it was time to pull the turnip out of the ground. So he took hold of it and began to pull.

1. 

He pulled and he pulled and he pulled and he pulled,



but the turnip wouldn't come out.

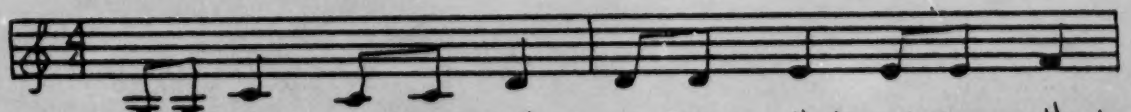
So the farmer called to his wife who was getting dinner.

2.

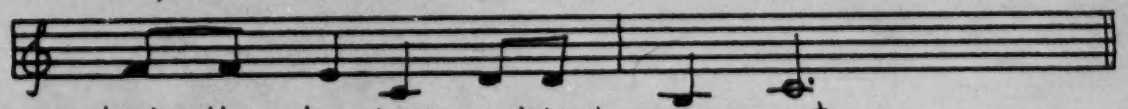
Help! Help! Do you hear my shout?

I pulled the turnip, but it wouldn't come out.

And the wife came running, and she took hold of the farmer, and . . .

3. 

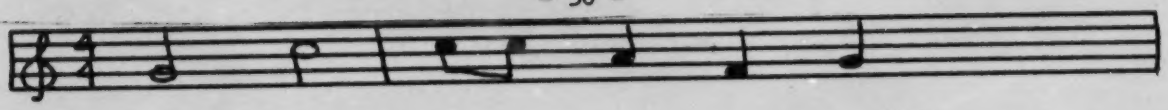
They pulled and they pulled and they pulled and they pulled,



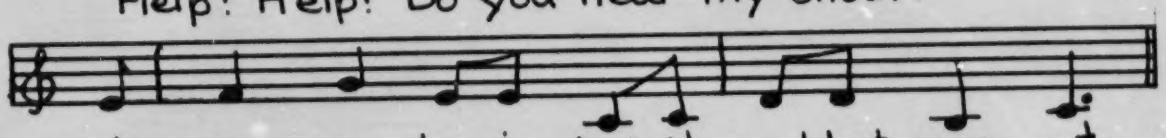
but the turnip wouldn't come out.

So the wife called to the daughter who was feeding the chickens nearby.

4.



Help! Help! Do you hear my shout?



We pulled the turnip, but it wouldn't come out.

And the daughter came running.

5.

The daughter took hold of the wife.
The wife took hold of the farmer.
The farmer took hold of the turnip.

Ref. 3 { They pulled and they pulled and they pulled and they pulled,
But the turnip wouldn't come out.

So the daughter called to the dog who was chewing a bone.

Ref. 4 { Help! Help! Do you hear my shout?
We pulled the turnip, but it wouldn't come out.

And the dog came running.

Ref. 5 { The dog took hold of the daughter.
The daughter took hold of the wife.
The wife took hold of the farmer.
The farmer took hold of the turnip.

Ref. 3 { And they pulled and they pulled and they pulled and they pulled,
But the turnip wouldn't come out.

The dog called to the cat who was chasing her tail.

Ref. 4
Help! Help! Doyou hear my shout?
We pulled the turnip, but it wouldn't come out.

And the cat came running

Ref. 5
The cat took hold of the dog.
The dog took hold of the daughter.
The daughter took hold of the wife.
The wife took hold of the farmer.
The farmer took hold of the turnip.

Ref. 3.
And they pulled and they pulled and they pulled and they pulled,
But the turnip wouldn't come out.

So the cat called to the mouse who was nibbling cheese.

Ref. 4
Help! Help! Do you hear my shout?
We pulled the turnip, but it wouldn't come out.

And the mouse came running.

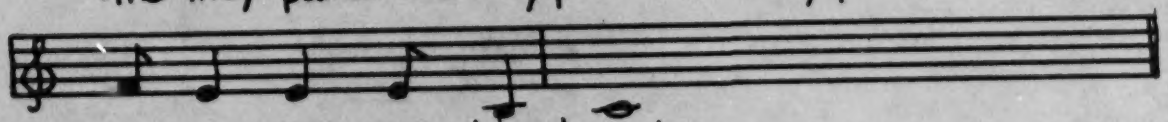
"That little mouse can't help," said the dog. "He's too little."

"Phooey," squeaked the mouse. "I could pull that turnip out myself, but since you have all been pulling, I'll let you help, too."

Ref. 5

So the mouse took hold of the cat,
The cat took hold of the dog.
The dog took hold of the daughter.
The daughter took hold of the wife.
The wife took hold of the farmer.
The farmer took hold of the turnip.

6.




And the turnip fell on the farmer. The farmer fell on the wife. The wife fell on the daughter. The daughter fell on the dog. The dog fell on the cat. The cat fell on the ground.

The little mouse ran down the hole and squeaked,

"I TOLD YOU SO!"

Practice Activities

Once the ideas in the story are understood, more structured language practice can be undertaken. The following are suggested practice activities for "The Big, Big Turnip." An attempt has been made to show the suitability of activities for different language levels and for the development of different skills.

It may be necessary to group the students for these activities. The teacher should choose activities suited to the needs of individual students or groups of students. This provides opportunities for the teacher to work intensively with one group of students at a time.

1. Vocabulary development and structural practice.

With students at low levels of fluency, initial practice activities may focus on the consolidation of new words and basic language patterns. These words and patterns may be introduced in print and used in writing activities.

a. "Here, There and Everywhere"

Display pictures of the story characters and/or word cards in different parts of the room. A group of students stand in the middle of the room. As the teacher calls out a word, the students move toward the appropriate picture or word card. Pictures and words should be changed as the students approach mastery to maintain interest.

Variations

(1) The teacher may call out a word that has not been displayed and the students could stand still or sit when this happens.

(2) Students could take turns calling out words.

(3) Students may sit on one spot and point as the words are called out.

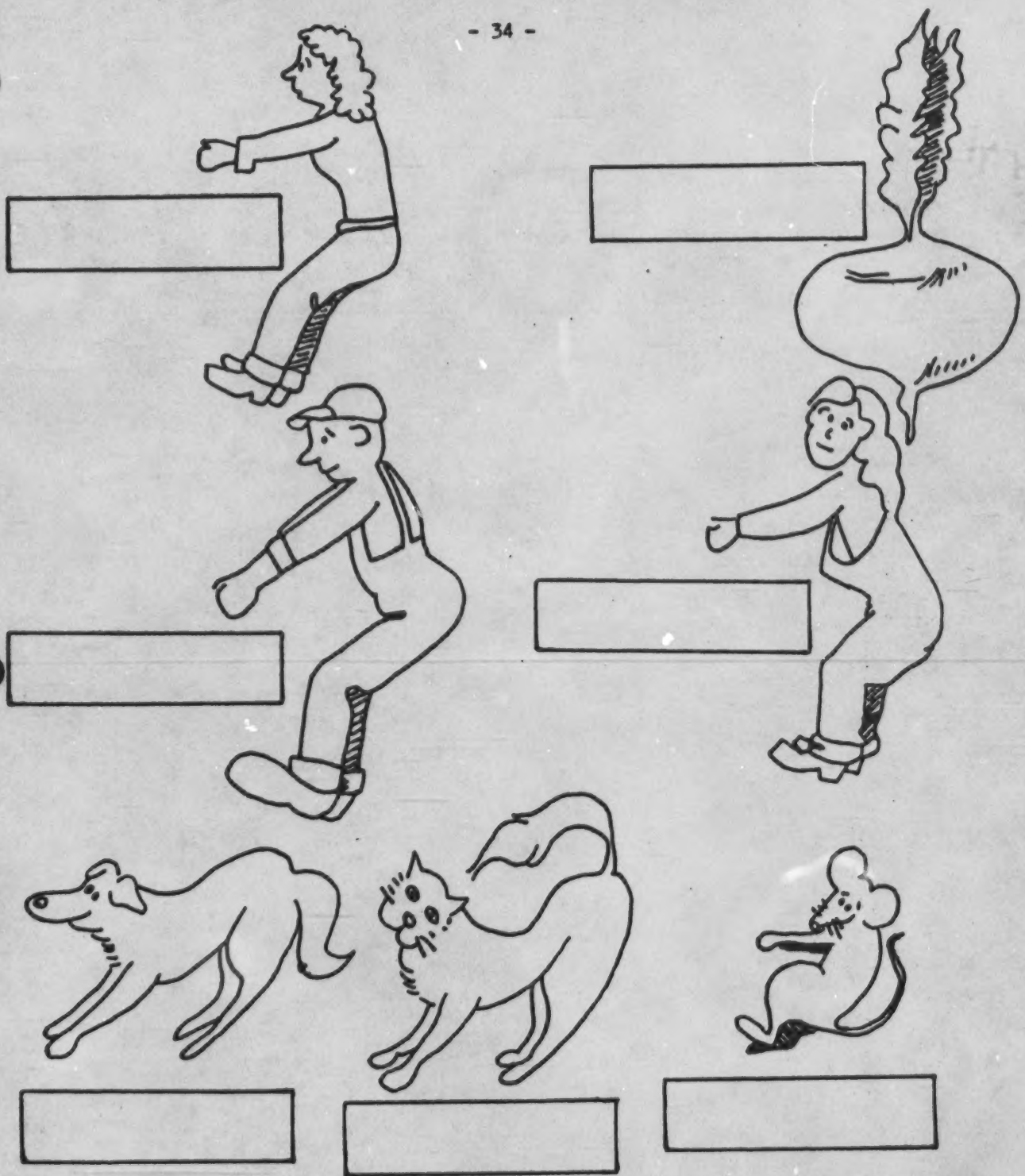
(4) With more advanced students, the object could be identified with clues rather than the name, e.g. "He's wearing a hat." Clues could be made progressively more difficult, e.g. "It has a tail," followed by "It lives in the ground."

Once students have become familiar with the vocabulary from the story and the printed words, they could be given Worksheet 1 which may be done first as a cut-and-paste activity and later for printing practice.

b. Phonics

Using the vocabulary items from the story, word recognition skills

Worksheet 1



| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| the farmer | the turnip | the cat | the daughter |
| the wife | the mouse | the dog | |

can be developed through brainstorming (see page 159). Shown a picture or printed word from the story students could be asked to name objects or names of people in the room beginning with the same sound. These words can be written on cards and used in a variety of word recognition, sorting or matching activities. Worksheets 2 and 3 could then be introduced.

c. "Who is it?"

The statement, question and short answer forms of the verb "to be" can be practiced in the form of a game using the new vocabulary from the story. The teacher hides a picture of one of the story characters, asks "Who is it?" and encourages the students to guess using the pattern, "Is it the____?" Short answers "Yes, it is" and "No, it isn't" are introduced. Points can be awarded for correct guesses. Later, students can take turns leading the game.

Once the patterns are familiar to the students, Worksheet 4, which requires the copying of a basic sentence pattern, or Worksheet 5, a matching activity which could be done as a cut-and-paste or printing activity, may be introduced.

d. Verb Practice

(1) Using the brainstorming technique and the story characters, many verbs can be introduced and practiced. The students are shown a picture of one of the story characters, and are asked to suggest activities that the characters can do, e.g., "What can a mouse do?" "A mouse can _____." Students should be encouraged to use the verbs from the story, e.g. plant, chase, nibble, squeak. The verbs contributed by the students can be recorded on cards for use in word recognition and categorization activities or games.

(2) "What am I doing?" "What did I do?"

Verbs from the story, e.g. plant, pull, nibble, squeak, run, come, which lend themselves to dramatization, can be used in activities to practice verb forms.

Either the teacher dramatizes or asks the students to dramatize different verbs, asking "What (am I) (is he) doing?"

After the action has been completed, the teacher could ask, "What did (I) (he) (she) do?"

This could be done as a game using word cards from (1). A child draws a card and dramatizes the verb while the others guess the action. The child who guesses correctly performs the next action.

the _armer

the _ouse

the _ife

the _urnip

the _at

the _aughter

the _og

WORKSHEET

a mouse

a house

a _ _ _ _ _

a flower

a farmer

a _ _ _ _ _ _

a turkey

a turnip

a _ _ _ _ _ _

a cat

a cot

a _ _ _

a daughter

a doorknob

a _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _

a word

a wife

a _ _ _ _

a hog

a dog

a _ _ _

Worksheet 4

This is the mouse .

This ___ the farmer .

This ___ ___ turnip .

_____ ___ ___ cat .

_____ ___ ___ _____.

_____ ___ ___ _____.

_____ ___ ___ _____.

Worksheet 5

Is this the mouse? Yes, it is.

Is this the cat?

Is this the farmer?

Is this the dog?

Is this the daughter?

Is this the wife?

Is this the turnip?

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Yes, it is. | Yes, it is. | No, it isn't. |
| No, it isn't. | No, it isn't. | No, it isn't. |

e. Comparatives

Using the story figures, the students could be asked to compare them for size, e.g. "The farmer is bigger than the wife," "The wife is smaller than the farmer." Once this has been practiced orally, students could be given Worksheet 6 to complete.

This activity could be extended to comparisons of class members, e.g. "John is bigger than Tom, etc." Story characters or class members could also be compared for other qualities such as strength, height, weight, etc.

2. Sequencing

Show the students the visuals from the story and identify each of the characters using a regular pattern such as, "Who is this?" "It's the _____." Hand the visuals to the students as they are identified. Ask the students to recall the story using a particular language structure, e.g.

"Who pulled the turnip?"
"The farmer pulled the turnip."
"Who pulled the turnip next?"
"The farmer and his wife pulled the turnip."

At the same time the visuals are placed on the flannel board in order. This activity may be repeated using the language structures such as "Who called to whom?" "Who took hold of whom?" Sentence strips could also be added at this point.

Students could then be given a game board and cards with pictures or names of the story characters and work individually or in groups to put the pictures in sequence using appropriate language structures. (See pages 42-43).

Worksheets 7 and 8a, 8b, can be used to practice sequence and the structures introduced in this activity.

At an appropriate time, students could be given Worksheet 9. Have the students cut out the pictures, place them on their desks and tell the sequence orally before pasting the pictures. Some students may be asked to label the pictures if they are able to do so, while others may be required to write a caption for each picture.

3. Sentence Completion

Identify from the story a specific sentence pattern for oral and written practice, e.g. The _____ called to _____ who was _____. Present a variety of sentence beginnings to the students orally, e.g. "The farmer called to his wife....;" "The wife called to the daughter..."

Worksheet 6



smaller than bigger than

The mouse is smaller than the cat.

The cat is bigger than the mouse.

The farmer is _____ _____ the dog.

The wife is _____ _____ the farmer.

The farmer is _____ _____ the wife.

The daughter is _____ _____ the dog.

___ dog is _____ _____ the wife.

___ mouse ___ _____ _____ the dog.

___ cat ___ _____ _____ ___ mouse.

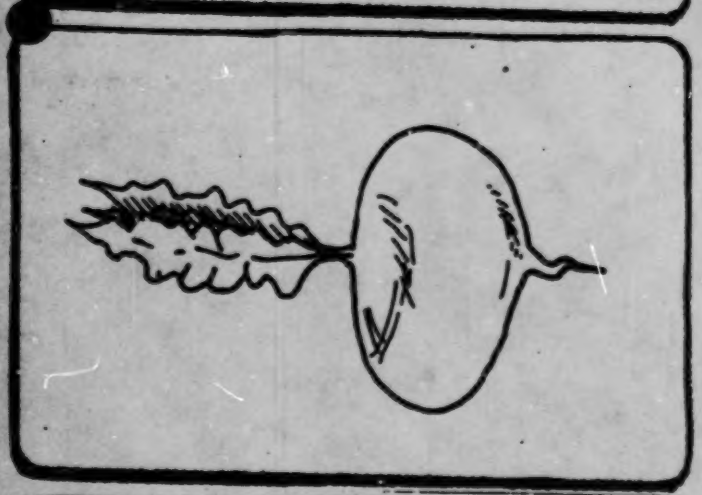
___ daughter ___ _____ _____ ___ farmer.

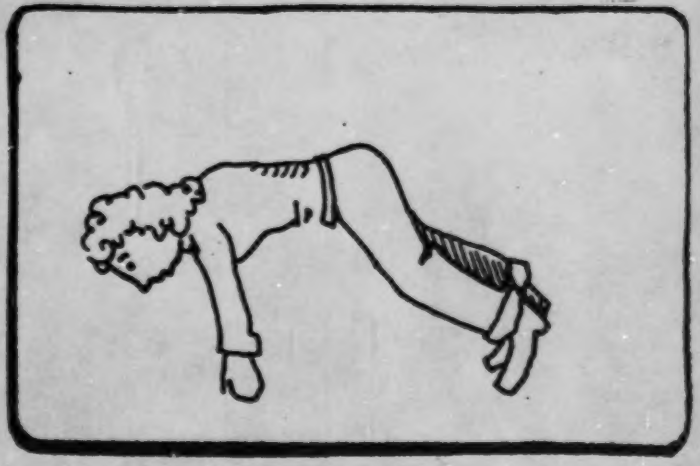
___ dog ___ smaller _____ ___ _____.

___ wife ___ bigger _____ ___ _____.

These are the models of the playing cards used in the practice activities.

Two sets of picture cards and two sets of word cards the same size should be prepared.





This is the model for the gameboard to be used in the sequencing activities.

Cut on the dashed line and join the pieces to make one long strip.

Worksheet 7

- The farmer called to the wife.
  The wife called ___ ____ daughter.
  The daughter _____ ___ ____ dog.
  ____ dog _____ ___ ____ cat.
  ____ _____ _____ _____ mouse.

---

- The farmer took hold of the turnip.
  The wife took hold ___ ____ farmer.
  ____ daughter took hold ___ ____ wife.
  ____ dog took hold ___ ____ _____.
  ____ cat took _____ ___ ____ _____
  ____ mouse _____ _____ ___ ____ _____

-

Worksheet 8a

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | called to | |
| | called to | |
| | called to | |
| | called to | |
| | called to | |

| | |
|---|---|
| The wife | the cat. |
| The farmer | the dog. |
| The cat | the wife. |
| The daughter | the mouse. |
| The dog | the daughter. |

Worksheet 8b

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | took hold of | |
| | took hold of | |
| | took hold of | |
| | took hold of | |
| | took hold of | |
| | took hold of | |

| | |
|---|---|
| The daughter | the cat. |
| The wife | the wife. |
| The cat | the farmer. |
| The farmer | the daughter. |
| The dog | the dog. |
| The mouse | the turnip. |

Worksheet 9















53

54

Ask them to complete these sentences and record correct answers on a chalkboard or wall chart in random order.

Next, using overhead transparencies of Worksheet 10, help the students to complete the sentences using information previously recorded.

Students may then complete the worksheets independently either from memory or using the printed clues displayed in the room. This activity may also be done with other sentence patterns using information from the story e.g. When the farmer called to his wife, she was feeding the chickens. (Worksheet 11).

4. Writing Booklet

Following the sentence completion activity, more advanced students could be given the story in "comic book" form and be expected to use appropriate sentences from the worksheet to label the pictures. See p. 51-58.

5. Substitution and Expansion

To develop an awareness of sentence patterns, children can be helped to create new sentences using the familiar sentence patterns of the story by substituting words and phrases in a model sentence. They can also be helped to expand model sentences by adding words, phrases and clauses to a familiar sentence pattern.

Initially students may begin by transforming or adding only one word in a sentence. The number of transformations or substitutions in a sentence will depend upon the language level of the students.

This activity is done orally with the teacher recording transformations and expansions on the blackboard or wall chart. Once the students are comfortable using these sentence patterns orally, they may be asked to write their own sentences based on the model.

a. Transformation

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| The farmer called to his | wife. | Objects obtained through |
| | daughter | brainstorming. |
| | dog | |
| | friend | |
| | _____ | |
| | _____ | |

The farmer called to his wife.

Predicates obtained through brainstorming.

| | |
|---|---|
| came | daughter |
| ran | dog |
| spoke | friend |
| _____ | _____ |
| _____ | _____ |
| _____ | |

Worksheet 10

The farmer called to his wife,

_____.

The wife called to her daughter,

_____.

The daughter called __ ____ dog,

_____.

____ dog _____ __ ____ cat,

_____.

____ _____ _____ __ ____ mouse,

_____.

Worksheet 11

When the farmer called to his wife,

_____.

When the wife called to her daughter,

_____.

____ the daughter_____ __ the dog,

_____.

____ ___ dog _____ ___ ____ cat,

_____.

____ ___ _____ _____ ___ ____ mouse,

_____.

# THE BIG BIG TURNIP

The farmer called to his wife,

who _____.

The wife called to the daughter,

_____.

Help ! _____!
Do you hear my _____?
We pulled the _____
but it wouldn't come_____.

The daughter called _____.

_____! _____!
Do you hear ___ _____?
We pulled ___ _____
but it wouldn't _____ _____.

The dog _____

_____

_____! _____!

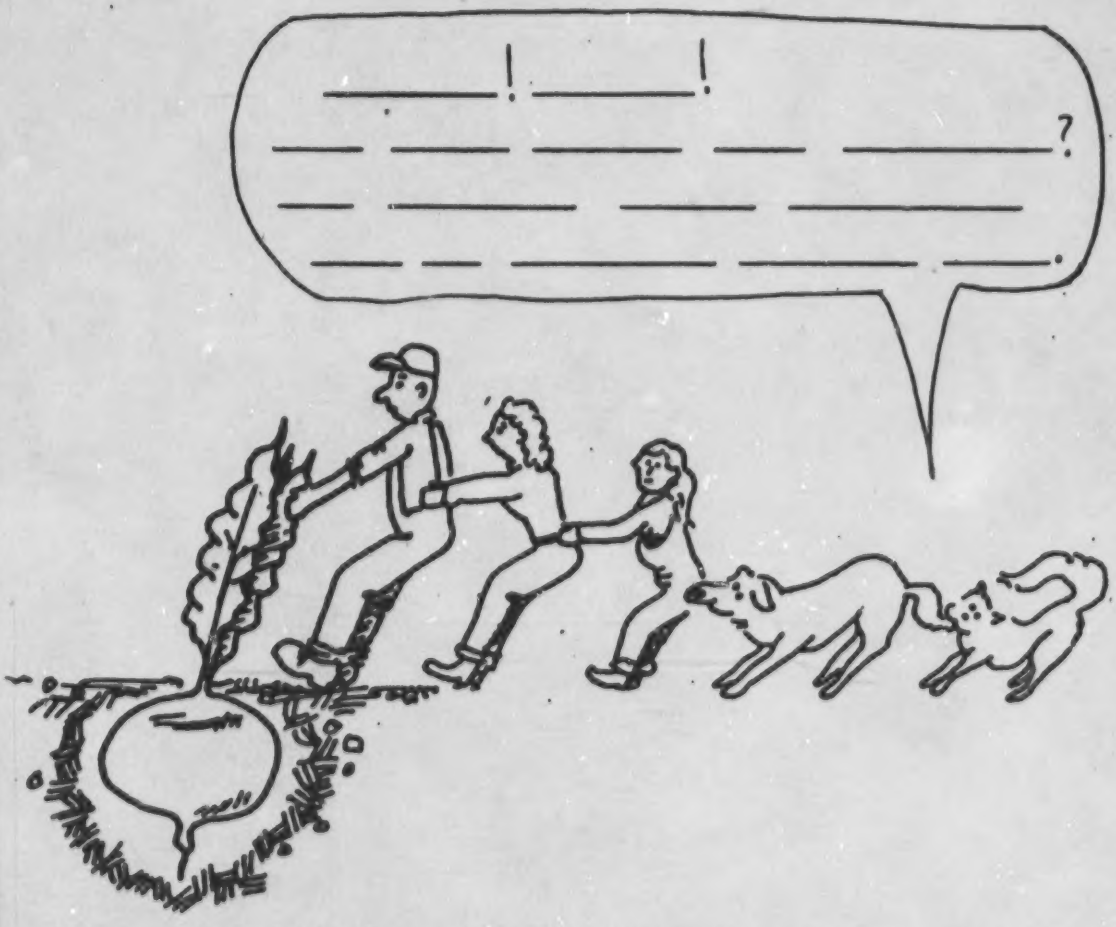
Do ____ ____ ____ _____?

We _____ _____ _____

but ___ _____ _____ ____.

The cat _____,

_____.



I could pull that turnip up myself, but since you have all been pulling I'll let you help too!

The farmer fell on the wife.

The wife _____.

The daughter _____.

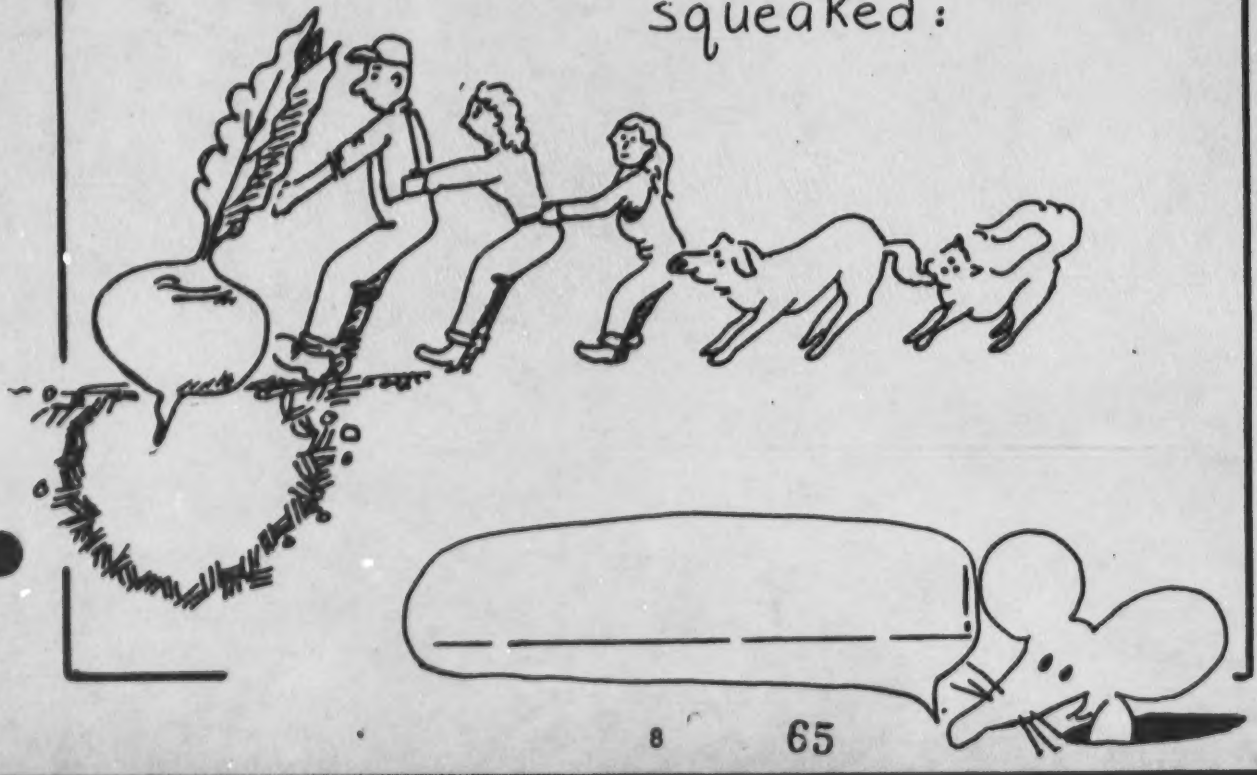
The dog _____.

The cat fell on the ground.

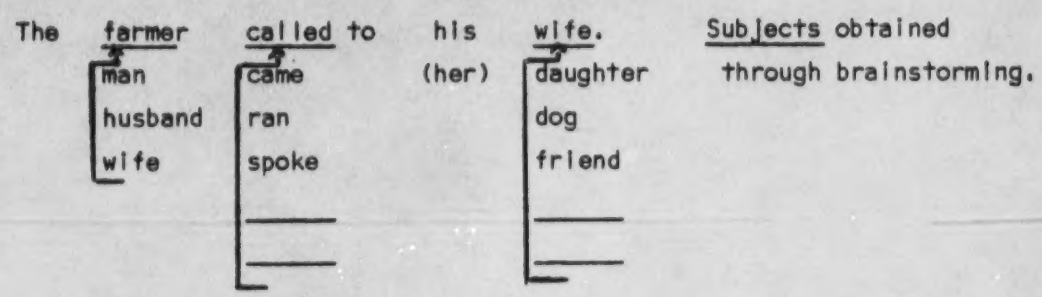
The mouse ran down the hole

and

squeaked:

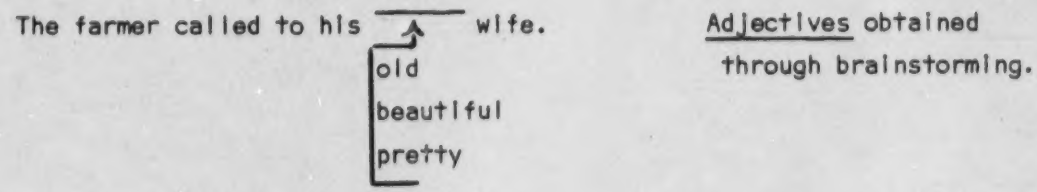


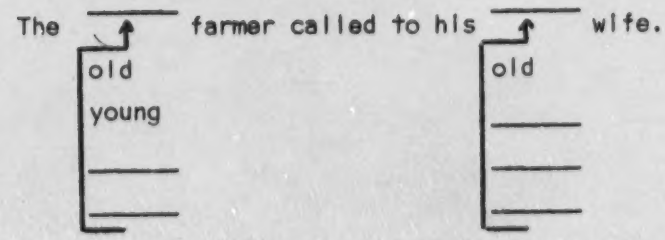
Students can now be encouraged to make a wide variety of sentences paying careful attention to meaning.

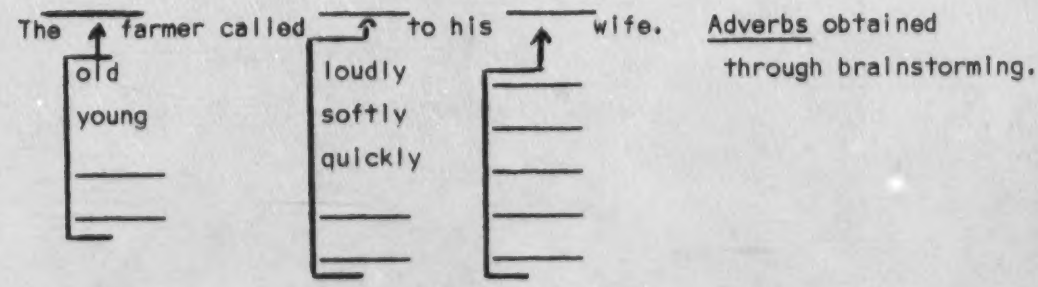


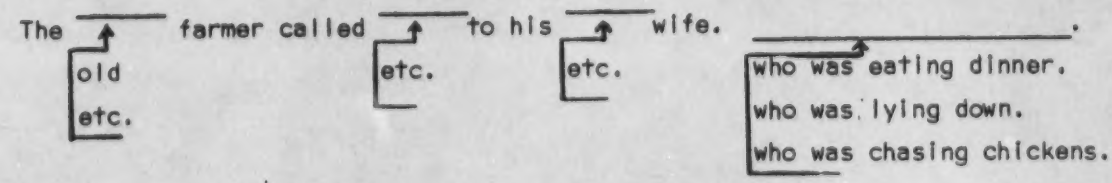

* Note that at this point the activity may become more complex if female subjects are introduced. This necessitates changing the pronouns "his" to "her" and limits the choice of objects.

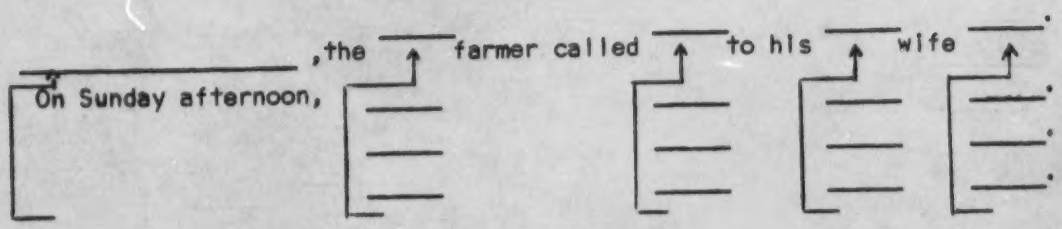
b. Expansion



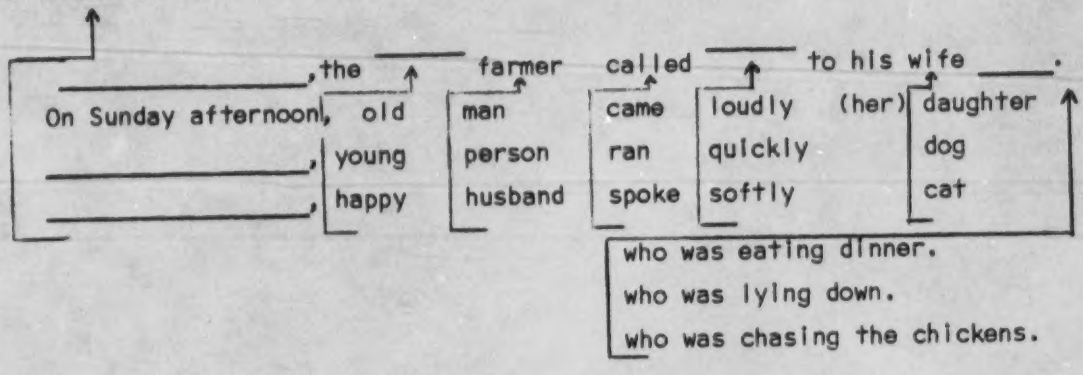






c. Transformation and Expansion




6. Sentence Combining

Sentence combining activities help students to understand how several ideas can be linked together. Worksheet 12 requires the students to use relative clauses. Worksheet 13 practices sentence combining using "and." Worksheet 14 contains a variety of sentence combining patterns.

For each worksheet, use an overhead transparency and encourage the students to combine the pairs of sentences into single sentences. Divide the students into groups of two. Give each pair two sentences on a large piece of paper and instruct them to make one sentence. When all the pairs have finished combining their sentences, ask each pair to present their new sentence to the group. Students can then work in pairs to complete the entire worksheet.

7. Modified Cloze

At this point students who have reached a sufficient level of proficiency may attempt a modified cloze exercise based on the entire story.

Prepare a transparency giving the summarized version of the story in its entirety. (Page 64).

Read the summarized version of the story from the transparency, with the students. Identify words from a particular class, e.g., all the adjectives, function words, verbs. Switch off the overhead and cover the previously identified words with small pieces of paper. Turn the machine on

Worksheet 12

Make one sentence:

1. The farmer called to his wife.
   His wife was getting dinner.

2. The daughter called to the dog.
   The dog was chewing a bone.

3. The wife called to her daughter.
   The daughter was feeding chickens nearby.

4. The dog called to the cat.
   The cat was chasing her tail.

5. The cat called to the mouse.
   The mouse was nibbling cheese nearby.

Make one sentence: Worksheet 13

1. The wife came running.
   The wife took hold of the farmer.

2. The dog came running.
   The dog took hold of the daughter.

3. The daughter came running.
   The daughter took hold of the wife.

4. The cat came running.
   The cat took hold of the dog.

5. They pulled.
   They pulled.
   They pulled.

Make one sentence: Worksheet 14

1 We pulled the turnip.
The turnip wouldn't come out.

2. The mouse ran down the hole.
The mouse squeaked, "I told you so!"

3. The farmer planted a seed.
It was a turnip seed.

4 The mouse can't help.
He is too little.

5. The farmer pulled.
He pulled.
The turnip wouldn't come out.

Summary

# The Big Turnip

Once a farmer planted a turnip seed. It grew and it grew until it became a great big turnip.

The farmer could not pull the turnip out by himself. His wife, his daughter, his dog and his cat helped him, but still the turnip would not come up.

When the little mouse came to help them, the great big turnip came up. The farmer, his wife, his daughter, his dog and his cat fell down, but the little mouse ran into a hole in the ground.

again and have students read the story supplying the missing words. Record the words on the chalkboard, asking the students to spell the word. Repeat this exercise several times using different classes of words. Show the students a transparency of Worksheet 15 with or without the missing words listed at the bottom. Complete the transparency with the help of the students. Students could then be given the worksheet to complete in pairs.

8. Additional Activities

Following are activities for further reinforcement at various levels. These can be introduced at any time for variety. Students could be paired for these activities to encourage discussion and provide assistance for weaker students.

a. Maze

To review the sequence of the story, ask "Who took hold of the turnip?" or "Who helped the farmer pull the turnip?" Use the overhead to show the students how to join the story characters in order from the turnip to the mouse, at the same time repeating a sentence pattern such as "The farmer took hold of the turnip," "The wife took hold of the farmer...," or "The farmer pulled the turnip," "The farmer and his wife pulled the turnip," "The farmer, his wife and...," etc.

b. Crossword Puzzle

Use the overhead to complete the first page with the students. Use a transparency of the puzzle page and show the students how to fill in the puzzle. The students can then be given the puzzle to complete in pairs.

c. Word Search

This activity could be preceded by a spelling lesson based on the vocabulary from the story.

d. Card Games

The word and picture cards can be used for games such as Snap and Concentration.

Culminating Activities

Once the students have been through the practice phase of the lesson, opportunities should be provided for the students to use the language and the ideas in different contexts and as a basis for extended activities. Certain activities are an appropriate culmination for any story: reading the story independently, listening to a taped version of the story, producing a class book, tape, or video production.

Worksheet 15

# The Big Turnip

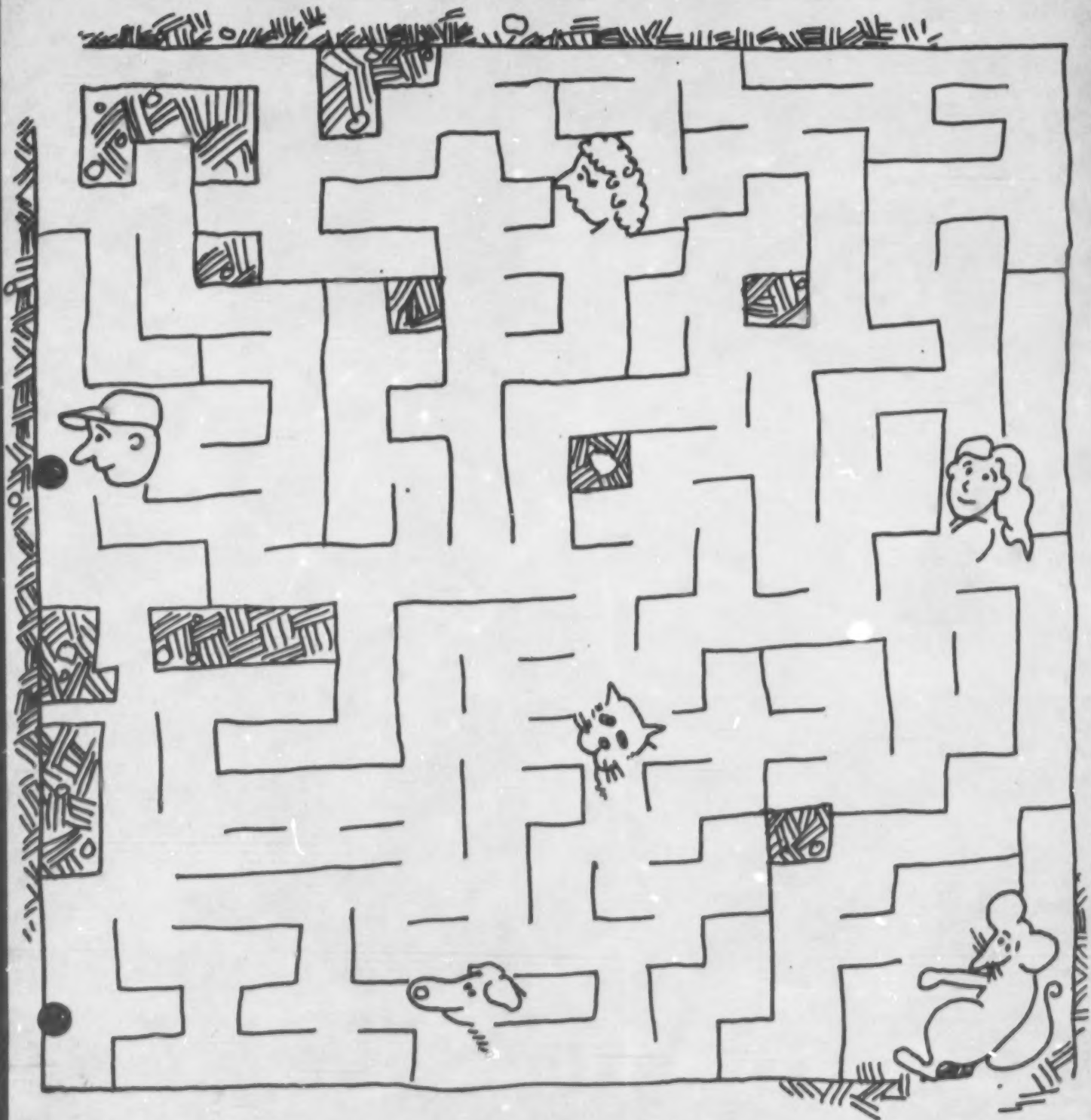
Once a farmer planted a turnip _____. It grew and it grew until it became a great big _____.

The _____ could not pull the turnip out by himself. His wife, his _____, his dog and his cat helped him, but still the turnip would not _____ up.

When the little _____ came to help them, the great big turnip _____ up. The farmer, his wife, his daughter, his dog and his cat _____ down, but the little mouse _____ into a hole in the ground.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| seed | daughter | came |
| turnip | come | fell |
| farmer | mouse | ran |

Who took hold of the turnip?



# CROSSWORD PUZZLE

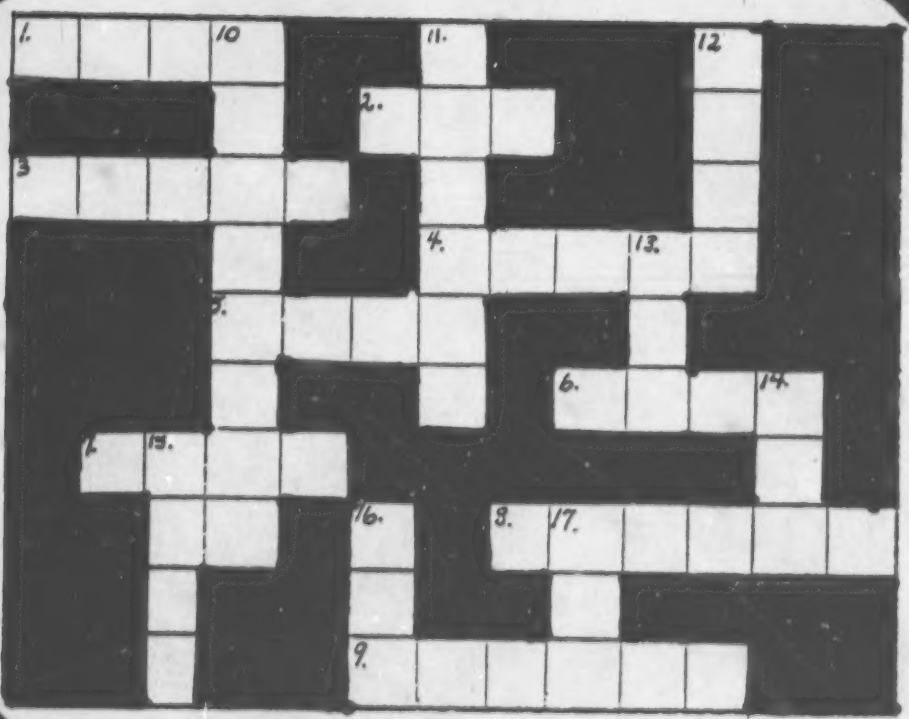
## ACROSS

1. The farmer took ___ of the turnip.
2. The ___ took hold of the dog.
3. Do you hear my ___.
4. The ___ took hold of the cat.
5. The mouse ran down the ___.
6. Do you ___ my shout?
7. Rhymes with grew.
8. Pull the turnip out of the ___.
9. Something to eat.

## DOWN

10. A girl.
11. A ___ planted a turnip seed.
12. The ___ was getting dinner.
13. Rhymes with bee.
14. The mouse ___ down the hole.
15. The dog took ___ of the daughter.
16. The turnip won't come ___.
17. The wife ___ to the farmer.

# Crossword Puzzle



# WORD SEARCH

| d | x | y | z | m | n | o | w | p |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| q | r | s | t | u | r | n | i | p |
| x | y | z | a | h | b | c | f | l |
| d | e | f | m | o | u | s | e | a |
| q | d | h | l | l | j | k | l | n |
| f | a | r | m | e | r | e | q | t |
| m | u | n | o | p | q | r | s | e |
| t | g | r | o | u | n | d | u | d |
| u | h | x | y | z | a | o | b | c |
| d | t | e | f | g | h | g | i | f |
| s | e | e | d | s | k | l | m | n |
| o | r | p | s | r | s | t | u | v |

Find these words

ACROSS

farmer
turnip
ground
seeds
mouse
cat

DOWN

dog
wife
hole
daughter
planted

Following are examples of culminating activities that are particularly suited to "The Big, Big Turnip."

1. Students could prepare individual copies of the "cut-out" story booklet (pages 72-80) which could then be used in reading lessons or simply for the students' enjoyment. Booklets are assembled in class. Give each student a copy of page 1 and page 7. Students read page 1, cut out the window at the bottom of the page and place it over page 7 so that the picture of the turnip appears in the window. Proceed in a similar manner for pages 2 through 6. The cover and concluding page can then be added.

2. Organize the students into groups to prepare a wall mural based on the story. One group would be responsible for making a back drop while each of the other groups would portray a different character from the story. These could then be assembled on a class bulletin board to depict different scenes from the story.

3. Small pictures depicting different scenes from the story could be prepared by groups of students and assembled in sequence on a long roll of paper for a roller movie (page 161). Students could then prepare their own taped version of the story to accompany the pictures.

4. Discuss with the students their ideas on what happened to the cat when all the others fell on him, what the farmer could have done if the turnip had not come out, or what the farmer could have done with the turnip. Students with limited English could then illustrate their ideas in some art media (e.g. plasticene, painting, drawing) while higher level students may write their ideas.

5. Have the students retell the story from the point of view of one of the characters, e.g. the farmer, the mouse, etc. This could lead to a role-playing activity.

6. Ask the students to categorize the story characters as people, animals or plants. A brainstorming technique could then be used to elicit other members of each category. These words could then be recorded on a chart or individual word cards and used for reading practice or other activities.

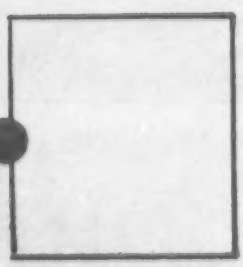
7. Lead the students into a discussion of situations in which they helped or were helped by another person. Students might then write or tell a "Help!" story from their own experience. Whom did they help or who helped them? What were the results?

8. Suggest that the students purposefully look for someone they may help within a day and report back to the class.

# THE BIG BIG TURNIP

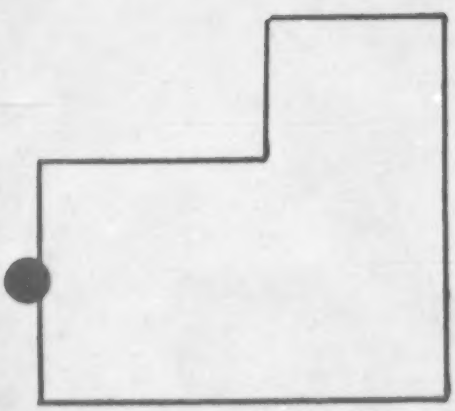
A FARMER ONCE PLANTED A TURNIP SFED.

AND IT GREW, AND IT GREW AND IT GREW.



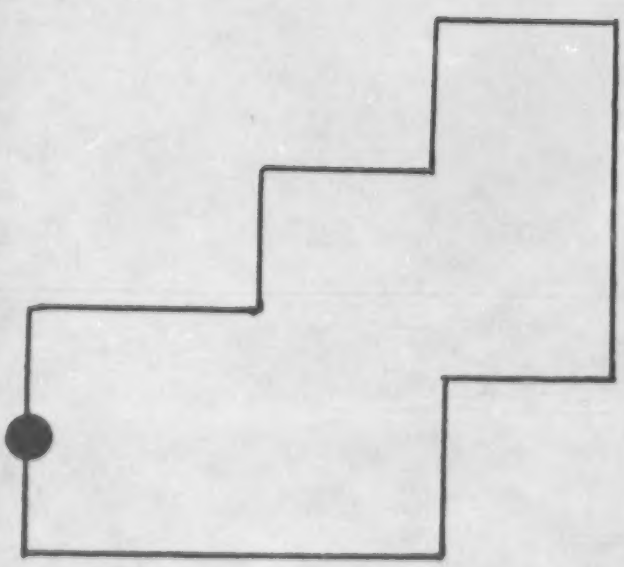
THE FARMER SAW IT WAS TIME TO PULL THE TURNIP OUT OF THE GROUND. HE PULLED AND HE PULLED AND HE PULLED AND HE PULLED, BUT THE TURNIP WOULD NOT COME OUT.

SO THE FARMER CALLED TO HIS WIFE WHO WAS GETTING DINNER. "HELP! HELP! DO YOU HEAR MY SHOUT? I PULLED THE TURNIP BUT IT WOULD NOT COME OUT."



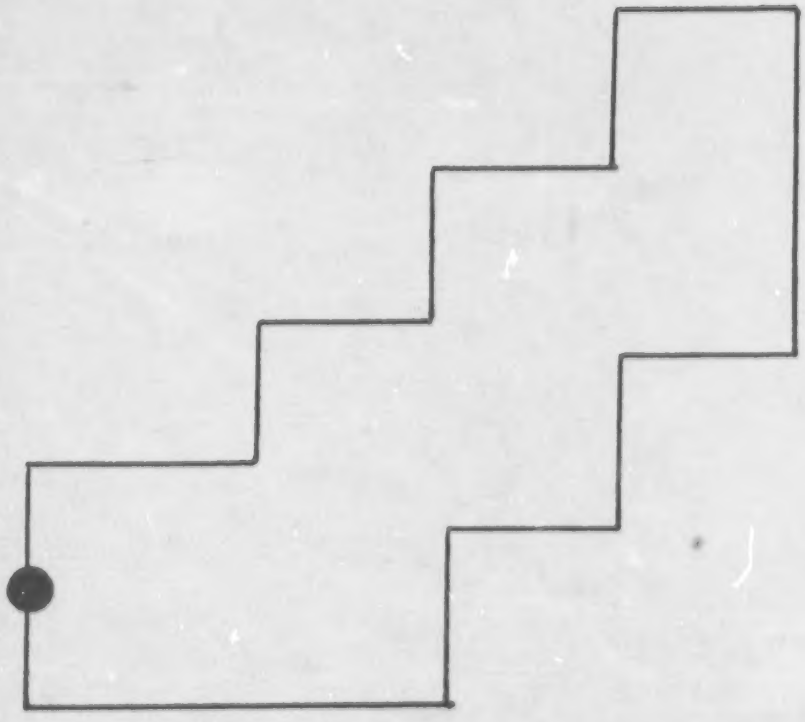
THE WIFE CAME RUNNING AND TOOK HOLD OF THE FARMER. THEY PULLED AND THEY PULLED AND THEY PULLED AND THEY PULLED, BUT THE TURNIP WOULDN'T COME OUT.

SO THE WIFE CALLED TO THE DAUGHTER WHO WAS FEEDING THE CHICKENS NEARBY. "HELP! HELP! DO YOU HEAR MY SHOUT? WE PULLED THE TURNIP BUT IT WOULDN'T COME OUT."



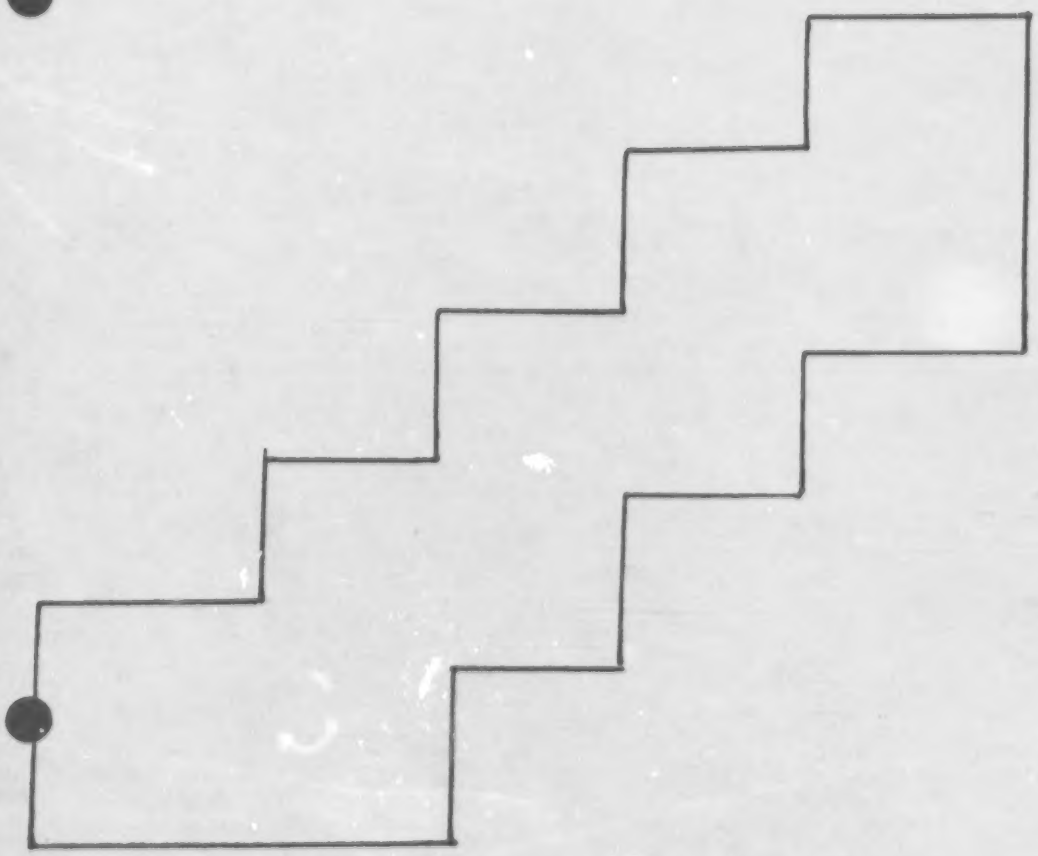
THE DAUGHTER CAME RUNNING. THE DAUGHTER TOOK HOLD OF THE WIFE. THE WIFE TOOK HOLD OF THE FARMER. THE FARMER TOOK HOLD OF THE TURNIP. THEY PULLED AND THEY PULLED AND THEY PULLED AND THEY PULLED, BUT THE TURNIP WOULDN'T COME OUT.

SO THE DAUGHTER CALLED TO THE DOG WHO WAS CHEWING A BONE. "HELP! HELP! DO YOU HEAR MY SHOUT? WE PULLED THE TURNIP BUT IT WOULDN'T COME OUT."



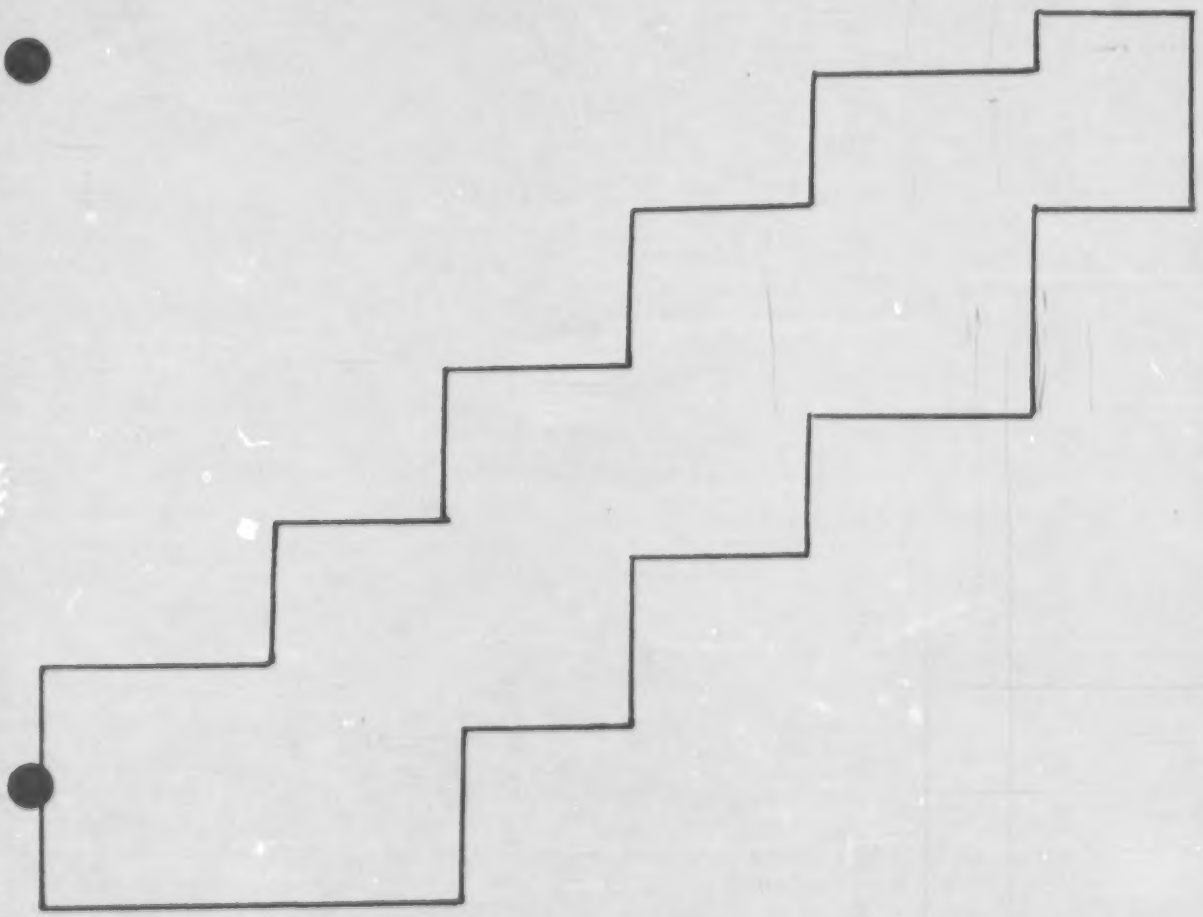
THE DOG CAME RUNNING. THE DOG TOOK HOLD OF THE DAUGHTER. THE DAUGHTER TOOK HOLD OF THE WIFE. THE WIFE TOOK HOLD OF THE FARMER. AND THE FARMER TOOK HOLD OF THE TURNIP. THEY PULLED AND THEY PULLED AND THEY PULLED AND THEY PULLED, BUT THE TURNIP WOULDN'T COME OUT.

SO THE DOG CALLED TO THE CAT WHO WAS CHASING HER TAIL. "HELP! HELP! DO YOU HEAR MY SHOUT? WE PULLED THE TURNIP BUT IT WOULDN'T COME OUT."



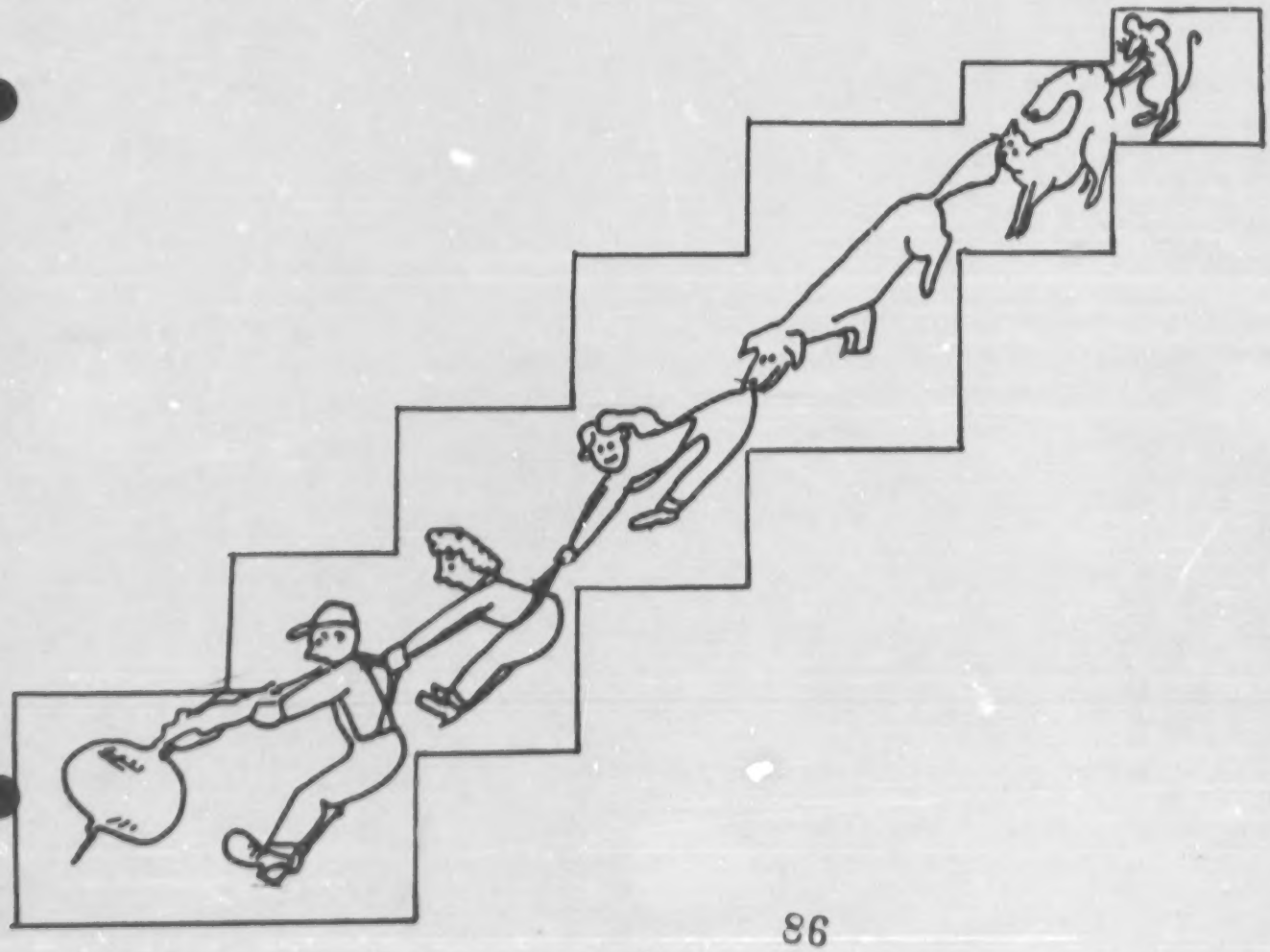
THE CAT CAME RUNNING. THE CAT TOOK HOLD OF THE DOG. THE DOG TOOK HOLD OF THE DAUGHTER. THE DAUGHTER TOOK HOLD OF THE WIFE. THE WIFE TOOK HOLD OF THE FARMER. THE FARMER TOOK HOLD OF THE TURNIP. THEY PULLED AND THEY PULLED AND THEY PULLED AND THEY PULLED BUT THE TURNIP WOULD NOT COME OUT.

SO THE CAT CALLED TO THE MOUSE WHO WAS NIBBLING CHEESE NEARBY. "HELP! HELP! DO YOU HEAR MY SHOUT? WE PULLED THE TURNIP BUT IT WOULDN'T COME OUT."



THE MOUSE CAME RUNNING. "THAT LITTLE MOUSE CAN'T HELP," SAID THE DOG. "HE IS TOO LITTLE." "PHOOEY," SQUEAKED THE MOUSE. "I COULD PULL THAT TURNIP UP BY MYSELF, BUT SINCE YOU HAVE ALL BEEN PULLING I'LL LET YOU HELP TOO."

SO THE MOUSE TOOK HOLD OF THE CAT. THE CAT TOOK HOLD OF THE DOG. THE DOG TOOK HOLD OF THE DAUGHTER. THE DAUGHTER TOOK HOLD OF THE WIFE. THE WIFE TOOK HOLD OF THE FARMER. AND THE FARMER TOOK HOLD OF THE TURNIP. THEY PULLED AND THEY PULLED AND THEY PULLED AND THEY PULLED AND UP CAME THE BIG TURNIP.



THE TURNIP FELL ON THE FARMER. THE FARMER FELL ON THE WIFE. THE WIFE FELL ON THE DAUGHTER. THE DAUGHTER FELL ON THE DOG. THE DOG FELL ON THE CAT. THE CAT FELL ON THE GROUND, BECAUSE THE MOUSE RAN DOWN THE HOLE AND SQUEAKED.

## BIBLIOGRAPHY


### Story-Telling Techniques

MORROW, Lesley Mandel. Super Tips for Story Telling.
Instructor Publications, 1979.

SOMERS, A.B., WORTHINGTON, J.E. Response Guides For Teaching Children's Books.
Urbana, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1979.

### More Stories For Telling

Ando, M. "The Cock and The Two Gold Coins," in Martin, B., ed. Sounds After Dark.
Toronto: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1972.

Berenstain, Stanley & Janice. The Big Honey Hunt. Beginner Books.
Toronto: Random House, 1962.

Bishop, Claire & Wiese, Kurt. The Five Chinese Brothers.
Toronto: Scholastic Book Services, 1938.

Brenner, Barbara. The Five Pennies
New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1964.

Brown, Marcia. Stone Soup.
New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1947.

Burningham, J.B. The Adventures of a Goose With No Feathers.
London: Jonathan Cape, 1963.

Burton, V. Mike Mulligan and the Steam Shovel.
Toronto: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1939.

Cook, B. "The Little Fish That Got Away" in Martin, B., ed. Sounds After Dark.
Toronto: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1972.

Cook, Bernadine. Looking for Susie.
Toronto: Addison-Wesley, 1959.

Eastman, P.D. Are You My Mother?
Toronto: Random House, 1960.

Elkin, Benjamin. Six Foolish Fishermen.
Toronto: Scholastic Book Services, 1957.

Flack, Marjorie. Ask Mr. Bear.
New York: MacMillan, 1932.

Firethunder, B. "Mother Meadowlark and Brother Snake" in Martin, B., ed. Sounds of the Story Teller.
Toronto: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1972.

Gag, Wanda . Millions of Cats.
New York: Coward-McCann, 1928.

_____. Snippy and Snappy.
New York: Coward-McCann, 1931.

_____. Nothing At All.
New York: Coward-McCann, 1941.

Galdone, Paul. Little Tuppen. An Old Tale.
New York: The Seabury Press, 1974.

_____. The Old Woman And Her Pig.
Toronto: McGraw-Hill, 1960.

_____. The Little Red Hen.
Toronto: Scholastic Book Services, 1973.

_____. Henny Penny.
Toronto: Scholastic Book Services, 1968.

_____. The Gingerbread Boy.
New York: The Seabury Press, 1975.

_____. The Three Bears.
Toronto: Scholastic Book Services, 1972.

Gelman, R.G. Why Can't I Fly.
Toronto: Scholastic Book Services, 1976.

Goldberg, L. Room For Rent.
Los Angeles: Ward Ritchie Press, 1972.

Gordon, G. Walter And The Balloon.
London: Heinemann, 1974.

Gross, R.B. The Bremen-town Musicians.
Toronto: Scholastic Book Services, 1974.

Heilbroner, J. This Is The House Where Jack Lives.
New York: Harper and Row, 1962.

Hogrogian, Nonny. One Fine Day.
London: MacMillan, 1971.

Klein, Lenore. Silly Sam.
Toronto: Scholastic Book Services, 1969.

Leaf, Munro. Gordon The Goat.
Toronto: Scholastic Book Services, 1944.

Le Sieg, Theo. I Wish That I Had Duck Feet. Beginner Books.
Toronto: Random House, 1965.

Littledale, Freya. The Magic Fish.
Toronto: Scholastic Book Services, 1969.

_____. The Magic Tablecloth, the Magic Goat, & the Hitting Stick.
Toronto: Scholastic Book Services, 1971.

_____. Seven At One Blow.
Toronto: Scholastic Book Services, 1976.

Lobel, Arnold. The Pancake.
New York: Greenwillow/Morrow, 1978.

Martin, B. "The Three Billy Goats Gruff" in Martin, B., ed. Sounds of Laughter.
Toronto: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1972.

_____. "The Little Squeegy Bug" in Martin, B., ed. Sounds After Dark.
Toronto: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1972.

McGovern, A. Zoo Where Are You?
New York: Harper & Row, 1964.

_____. Too Much Noise.
Boston: Houghton, Mifflin, 1967.

Myers, Bernice. Sally's Secret.
Toronto: Scholastic Book Services, 1977.

Nodset, Joan. Who Took The Farmer's Hat?
Toronto: Scholastic Book Services, 1963.

Piper, W. The Little Engine That Could.
New York: Platt & Munk, 1961.

Polushkin, Maria. Who Said Meow?
New York: Crown Publishers, 1975.

Pomerantz, C. The Ballad of the Long-Tailed Rat.
New York: MacMillan, 1975.

Seuss, Dr. Mr. Brown Can Moo! Can You?
New York: Random House, 1970.

_____. The Cat In The Hat.
New York: Random House, 1957.

Silverstein, Shel. The Giving Tree.
New York: Harper and Row, 1964.

Simon, N. I Was So Mad!
Chicago: Albert Whitman & Company, 1974.

Slobodkina, E. Caps For Sale.
Toronto: Addison-Wesley, 1947.

Viorst, J. Alexander And The Terrible, Horrible, No Good, Very Bad Day.
Toronto: McClelland & Stewart, 1972.

Willard, Nonny. Simple Pictures Are Best.
New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1976.

Williamson, A. The Little Black Cat. The Gay Colour Book #6.
London: E.J. Arnold & Sons Ltd., 1964.

Wing, H.R. Ten Pennies For Candy. Little Owl Books.
Toronto: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1963.

Wood, James. Three Blind Mice.
New York: Vanguard Press.

Zemach, M. The Judge.
New York: Farrar, Straus and Giroux, 1969.

Zolotow, Charlotte. Mr. Rabbit And The Lovely Present.
New York: Harper and Row, 1962.

* For filmstrips and tapes to accompany childrens' stories, see the Weston Woods catalogue. (Weston Woods, Box 280, Station 'A', Weston, Ontario, M9N 3M7).

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT THROUGH THE USE OF SUBJECT AREA CURRICULUM

Students with limited fluency in English have more difficulty than regular class students in reading subject area textbooks and doing assignments considered appropriate for their age level. This section of the handbook has suggestions for preparing students at low levels of fluency to receive instruction in a subject area by giving them opportunities to have experiences and to acquire language that will facilitate learning in a subject area.

Two descriptors that are useful in language development are the performance of functions and the expression of notions. Through the use of language we apologize, question, make inferences and perform many other functions. Through language we also express notions. For example, the use of apology in situations where we are late indicates the notion that lateness deserves an apology.

In science, as in other subjects, students are asked to use language to perform functions and express notions specific to a task or situations. Low level fluency students have difficulty describing, explaining, stating relationships, making generalizations and evaluations, and performing other science functions because they don't know the structures that perform these functions. They may not understand the notions of logic that are embedded in the scientific process. For example, if the cultural background of the students is such that they are not accustomed to making inferences, the teacher may have to establish the notion of an inference and model the statements that are used for expressing inferences.

Suggested Procedure for Developing a Language Lesson in a Subject Area

Any subject area lesson may be used to develop the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing when the following steps are taken:

1. Examine a teaching unit in the syllabus and identify cognitive and linguistic skills and technical vocabulary central to a specific unit to be studied.

2. According to the needs of the students, select concepts, skills, language structures, and the core technical vocabulary which need to be taught.

3. According to the students' needs, prepare

   a. background experiences whenever the topic does not come within the child's known experience.

   b. appropriate language eliciting and language reinforcing activities that are within the children's common experiences and which correspond closely to the concepts of the technical vocabulary to be introduced later in specific units of study.

c. word cards and sentence strips for visual exposure of key words and sentence structures.

d. extended reading and writing activities which include the language structures, vocabulary and concepts in the subject area lesson

e. activities that lead to the use of newly acquired language in free communication situations.

Introduction to the Sample Science Unit

The sample unit is designed to prepare low level fluency students for a grade five level science unit on the topic "Interdependency and Interaction Among Organisms: Adaptations to the Environment" (1979 Manitoba K-6 Science Curriculum, page 165). The main concept developed through this unit is that "Adaptations help organisms survive in their environments." The objective of the sample unit is to provide students with opportunities to develop the concepts, skills and language (structures and vocabulary) necessary to talk, read and write about this topic.

The unit is divided into three parts:

Part I All things are either living or non-living.

A. All things have properties.

B. Breathing, eating and movement are properties of living things.

C. Plants and animals are organisms.

Part II An environment must provide an organism with its basic needs.

A. An organism has basic needs that must be met if it is to survive.

B. Environment is everything living and non-living around an organism.

Part III Adaptations help organisms to survive in their environments.

A. Adaptations are changes in an organism which help it to survive.

B. Adaptations may be structural.

C. Adaptations may be behavioural.

Parts I and II develop background concepts essential to an understanding of the topic and introduce key language structures and vocabulary and science skills. Part III relates specifically to the key concept stated in the

grade five unit and the objectives as stated in I. (a) - (f), page 165 (1979 Manitoba K-6 Science Curriculum). The suggested activities are intended to prepare students for regular class science instruction on the topic selected.

The suggested techniques for developing language skills incorporated into the sample unit are meant to serve as examples only. When planning to teach this unit, teachers are advised to follow the procedures outlined on pages 85-86 and then to select activities that would be appropriate for their students. For example, if students do not have the concepts and/or language necessary to talk, read or write about "things" as either living or non-living, they should begin with Part I.

Organization of the Sample Unit

The sample unit begins with a general discussion of techniques for developing oral language and reading and writing skills in a subject area. Although separated for purposes of discussion, in practice, language skills are integrated with one another and the concepts being taught. However, the usual sequence in the language development approach is to introduce concepts and language orally through an experience before engaging in reading and writing practice.

In the sample science unit that follows, page 95, detailed procedures related to the concepts, skills and language to be developed are suggested. Sample activities are also given.

## TECHNIQUES FOR LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT IN A SUBJECT AREA

### Oral Language

Oral activities are given priority because low level fluency students need practice in using language. Oral activities based on students' experiences also form the basis for reading and writing practice.

Students must be provided with many opportunities to use language within the context of an experience. Initially, students should be encouraged to discuss a topic using whatever language is available to them and without undue concern for errors. The teacher's role in this process is to facilitate the discussion through questioning, to elicit language from the students and to provide key words and structures as they are needed.

Once students have grasped the concept being presented and have been exposed to the related language, more structured oral language practice should be introduced. Selection of the grammatical structures and vocabulary to be developed will depend upon the language level of the students and the topic of the lesson. Consideration must also be given to the various language functions--describing, predicting, questioning, etc.--which students are required to perform in a subject area, and to the language structures needed to express these functions.

Once language structures to be developed through a particular topic have been selected, they should be repeated frequently by the teacher and incorporated in student activities within the context of the lesson. Some techniques which will help students to internalize language include:

1. Use of Frame Sentences

   Frame sentences are sentence patterns into which new words may be inserted. An attempt should be made to use sentence patterns consistently in the presentation of new vocabulary and in activities designed to elicit language from students. For example, in a brainstorming activity, student responses can provide the opportunity to repeat a language structure as well as to generate ideas.

   Teacher (T.): What can living things do?
   Students (Ss.): Living things can _____.
   eat
   move
   breathe

2. Question and Answer Routines

   Questioning is an important function of language and students should be encouraged to ask as well as answer questions. Students can practice question forms through

a. directed questions
   T.: Ask John what legs are adapted for.
   S.: John, what are legs adapted for?

b. chain practice where students ask each other the same question in turn
   $S_1$: (to $S_2$) How many animals did you count?
   $S_2$: I counted 7. (to $S_3$) How many animals did you count?

c. pairing students for a task which requires one student to ask questions of another.

Question and answer routines can also be used to develop awareness of:

a. Tenses
   (1) T.: What are you going to do?
   Ss.: We are going to classify the animals into two groups.

   (2) T.: What are you doing?
   Ss.: We are classifying ....

   (3) T.: What have you done?
   Ss.: We have classified ....

b. Pronouns (and Tenses)
   (1) T.: What is Harry going to do?
   Ss.: He is going to classify the animals into two groups.

   (2) T.: What is Susan doing?
   Ss.: She is classifying ....

   (3) T.: What have Susan and Harry done?
   Ss.: They have classified ....

c. Other aspects of grammar such as possessives, plurals, comparatives, word order, etc.

3. Sentence Combining

Through the use of sentence combining, students can gain an awareness of how ideas are linked together as well as the language needed to express logical relationships. Initially sentences are kept short and simple. The least difficult form of sentence combining involves the joining of words and sentences with "and." More complex sentence combinations involve the use of conjunctions to introduce relative clauses or adverbial clauses which express cause and effect, or time and space relationships, etc. Sentence combining follows naturally once basic sentence patterns have been introduced and practiced in frame sentences and question and answer routines.

a. Series
Legs are adapted for running.
Legs are adapted for walking.
Legs are adapted for jumping.

T.: What are legs adapted for? Name 3 things.
Ss.: Legs are adapted for running, walking and jumping.

b. Conjoining
Legs are adapted for running.
Hands are adapted for grasping.

T.: What are legs and hands adapted for?
Ss.: Legs are adapted for running and hands are adapted for grasping.

c. Cause and Effect
Environment changes all the time.
Animals adapt in order to survive.

T.: Why do animals adapt in order to survive?
Ss.: Animals adapt in order to survive because environment changes all the time.

Oral language activities should include both listening and speaking practice. As a lesson proceeds, it is essential to check if students have heard and understood what has been said. This may be done through discussion or, in the case of directions, by asking students to repeat and explain what they have been told. An application of these techniques at various levels of language will provide information useful in selecting appropriate language activities.

Finally, oral language activities should be extended to activities requiring the students to use newly acquired language in free communication situations. Free communication occurs whenever students participate in classroom activities or initiate language to serve their own purposes, for example, to seek information from someone, to gain clarification and reassurance, or to initiate discussion based on their own experiences or imagination.

Reading

New words and structures may be introduced in print form immediately after they have been introduced orally. Structured reading activities provide a sequenced approach to reinforcing concepts and language presented orally and prepare students to read suitable and related published material independently.

The activities described below follow a progression from highly structured to independent reading. Selection of activities will depend on the language level of the students. Students at low levels of fluency may spend more time on basic activities, while more linguistically advanced students may progress rapidly through these activities and spend most of their time in reading activities at a higher level.

1. Reading Initiated by Brainstorming. (Page 159).

   Students and teacher provide words related to a topic. Words are recorded on the chalkboard and later on word cards for use in a variety of activities.

   a. The teacher reads the word and the students point to a referent.
   b. Students read the cards and match them to the referent.
   c. Students classify the words into categories.
   d. Students use their words in sentences.

2. Reading of Frame Sentences

   Frame sentences used in oral activities can immediately be introduced in print. Words from brainstorming activities can be inserted in the frame sentences. Students can read the new sentences.

3. Sentence Strips

   Sentences made with the new vocabulary and structures can be put on long strips of cardboard or stiff paper.

   a. Students practice reading the sentence strips.
   b. Conceal words on the sentence strips and encourage students to predict the missing word(s). After the word has been identified, the students can learn to spell the word by spelling it aloud, analyzing it and comparing it with the exposed word on the sentence strip.

4. Manipulation of Word Cards and Sentence Strips

   Word cards and sentence strips can be used in a variety of manipulative activities, e.g.

   a. Students can match sentences to pictures.
   b. Sentence strips can be cut in two and students match the sentence parts.
   c. Sentence strips can be assembled into a logical sequence.

5. Controlled Reading

   Vocabulary and structures from oral activities can be incorporated into a reading passage. Once students are able to read the passage, it may become the basis for

   a. modified cloze exercise (page 60)
   b. word substitution and transformation exercises

6. Independent Reading

Once core vocabulary and structures have been practiced through structured reading activities, students may be introduced to materials appropriate for their age/grade level.

## Writing

Like the reading activities, the writing activities described here follow a progression from highly structured to independent writing. Writing activities may be introduced as soon as the required language has been introduced orally and in printed form. Once again, the selection of activities and the amount of time spent on each will depend upon the language level of the students.

1. Copying

At a basic stage of language learning, students may simply be required to copy words and sentences they understand.

2. Substitution

Students' first attempts at sentence writing may simply involve insertion of a familiar word in a frame sentence.

A _____ is a living thing.
dog
cat
tree

Depending on the language level of the students, the number of substitutions in a sentence may be increased.

| _____ | are adapted for | _____ | and _____. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Legs | | biting | chewing |
| Hands | | walking | catching |
| Teeth | | holding | running |

3. Vanishing Technique

Students may be presented with a familiar sentence and then be required to complete other sentences following a similar pattern. Through progressive deletion of words, students are helped to reconstruct a whole sentence pattern.

Our legs are adapted for walking and running.
___teeth ___ adapted ___ biting ___ chewing.
___hands ___ _____ ___ _____ ___ _____.

4. Expansion

Students may expand a frame sentence by adding words, phrases, or clauses. The number of expansions will depend upon the language level of the students.

Model: Legs are adapted for walking.
Expansion: _____ legs are adapted for walking_____.
Long fast
Strong far

5. Substitution and Expansion

For students at more advanced levels of language development, substitution and expansion may be combined into a single exercise.

Model: Legs are adapted for walking and running.
Substitution
& Expansion _____ _____ are adapted for _____ _____.
Long legs walking fast
Strong hands holding firmly

6. Sentence Combining

The sentence combining practice begun orally may lead to written exercises. Sentence combining is most successful when sentences are short and easily understood by the students. Exercises should be graded from those requiring the simplest kinds of combinations to those requiring more complex types of conjoining and embedding.

A hierarchy for sentence combining exercises might be:

a. linking words in series with "and"
Living things can eat.
Living things can breathe.
S.C. Living things can eat and breathe.

b. joining sentences with "and" or "but"
A boy can run.
A book can't run.
S.C. A boy can run, but a book can't run.

c. joining sentences with because, when, while, etc.
A tree is a living thing.
A tree has the properties of living things.
S.C. A tree is a living thing because a tree has the properties of living things.

d. embedding phrases and relative clauses
A tree is a plant.
A tree is an organism.
S.C. A tree, which is a plant, is an organism.

e. use of conditional clauses with "if"
A dog chased a cat.
The cat would climb a tree.
S.C. If a dog chased a cat, the cat would climb a tree.

Students at basic levels of language may be required to combine sentences of types a. or b. only. Students at all levels of language should be given sufficient practice with each type of sentence combination before engaging in exercises which require different types of sentence combining.

7. Controlled Writing

Controlled writing activities might include question and answer exercises, cloze, crossword puzzles, word search, etc.

8. Guided Paragraph Writing

Students may be helped to write paragraphs by filling in the blanks in a prepared paragraph, by answering questions and arranging the answers in paragraph form or by combining sentences to produce paragraphs.

9. Independent Writing

Once core vocabulary and structures have been practiced through structured writing activities, students of limited fluency may participate in writing activities with the rest of the class.

## SAMPLE SCIENCE UNIT

The sample unit which follows is organized around the science concepts identified on pages 86. The left hand side of the page contains detailed procedures for developing these concepts and the appropriate language through suggested language development and language reinforcement activities. Science skills and vocabulary to be developed are identified in the left hand column. Language structures are introduced as frame sentences or teaching statements, summarizing main concepts or definitions of essential terms. On the right hand side of the page, language techniques suggested in the lesson plan are explained in greater detail.

The question and answer routines suggested as language reinforcement are intended as models rather than scripts. Individuals will want to change the routines to suit their personal style of speech. However, it is important to use the selected patterns consistently in presentation and practice activities.

Before teaching the material in this unit, frame sentences and teaching statements should be put on sentence strips, long strips of cardboard or stiff paper approximately 10 cm wide. A supply of blank sentence strips and cards for recording words elicited through brainstorming activities should also be obtained. Pictures and other visuals required for presentation should be assembled.

The three parts of the unit are sequenced so that the most basic concepts are developed first and then extended. Language activities, too, are sequenced according to the level of complexity. Every group of students need not do every part of the unit or every activity within each part. Selection of parts and activities will depend upon the students' background in the topic and level of linguistic competence.

The table on page 15 has additional suggestions for the presentation and practice of concepts and language. For this unit, the culminating activity would be the students' meaningful participation in the regular class science lesson.

Part I THINGS ARE EITHER LIVING OR NON-LIVING

A. All things have properties.
B. Breathing and eating are properties of living things.
C. Plants and animals are organisms.

| SKILLS & VOCABULARY | SUGGESTED LANGUAGE ACTIVITIES | SUGGESTED LANGUAGE REINFORCEMENT |
|---|---|---|
| Skill: observation<br><br>Vocabulary: observe<br><br>Ensure that students know the meanings of the words obtained through brainstorming. | 1. a. Ask the class to observe and name what they can see.<br><br>Use brainstorming technique (page ).<br>Encourage students to use the frame sentence and record student responses:<br><br>b. Ask students about the activity:<br><br>c. Use the word cards from a. in reading and writing activities. Students may write their own sentences using the frame sentence as a model. | Check on listening comprehension and production. **<br><br>T.: What can we see in the room?<br>Ss.: I can see _____. (frame sentence)<br>a book<br>chairs<br><br>T.: What have we done?<br>Ss.: We have observed and named the things we can see. |
| | 2. a. Select a living and a non-living thing from the students' list (Activity 1), e.g. boy, book.<br><br>b. Ask the class to state what a boy can do but a book cannot.<br><br>Introduce the frame sentences and record student responses:<br><br>Encourage the students to combine their answers into the longer sentence pattern:<br><br>Students may substitute other words in the sentence pattern.<br><br>c. Stop the students and ask about the activity:<br><br>d. Give students pairs of words, e.g. boy-book, teacher-window, and ask them to write sentences based on the frame sentences. | Check on listening comprehension and production.<br><br>T.: What can a boy do that a book can't?<br>Ss.: A boy can _____. A book cannot _____.<br>run eat run eat<br>A boy can _____, but a book cannot _____.<br>girl run eat desk run eat<br><br>T.: What are we doing?<br>Ss.: We are stating what a boy can do but a book cannot. |

PART I - TECHNIQUES AND SAMPLE ACTIVITIES

** Techniques for Checking Listening Comprehension and Production

Students listening comprehension and production can be checked by asking them to repeat the teacher's directions. The students' response will indicate if an explanation or a direction was stated clearly enough and if it was within the student's memory span. By asking questions specific to an explanation or direction, it is possible to observe the level of student understanding. It is also an important step in ensuring that students learn the vocabulary associated with operations that they will be asked to perform in a subject area.

The following activities are suggested as a means of obtaining feedback on students listening comprehension and oral production. Some students may need to repeat and/or transform the model, while others might only need to hear the directions before performing the assigned task. Listening comprehension checks should be done whenever there is any doubt that students have understood what has been said.

1. Repetition of model (students at low levels of fluency).

   Teacher (T.): We are going to observe and name the things we can see. What are we going to do?

   Students (Ss.): We are going to observe and name the things we can see.

   T.: Yes, we are going to observe and name the things we can see. Let's do it. (Performance indicates level of comprehension).

2. Transformation of model (students at intermediate level of fluency).

   T.: I'm going to ask you to observe and name the things we can see. What are you going to do?

   Ss.: We are (I am) going to observe and name the things we (I) can see.

   T.: Do it. (Performance indicates level of comprehension).

3. Give directions only (students at a more advanced level of fluency).

   T.: Name the things we can observe in the room. (Performance indicates level of comprehension).

| SKILLS & VOCABULARY | SUGGESTED LANGUAGE ACTIVITIES | SUGGESTED LANGUAGE REINFORCEMENT |
|---|---|---|
| **Vocabulary:** living<br>non-living<br>property | 3. a. Ask the class to <u>state</u> how a boy is different from a book.<br>Use the frame sentence and record student responses: | Check on listening comprehension and production.<br>T.: How is a boy different from a book?<br>Ss.: A boy runs/eats, but a book does not. |
| | Continue the activity until the properties of living things have been listed. | |
| | b. Introduce the teaching statements:<br>Things that move, eat and breathe are LIVING THINGS.<br>Things that do not move, eat and breathe are NON-LIVING THINGS. | |
| | c. Introduce the teaching statement:<br>Breathing is a PROPERTY of living things. | |
| | and discuss the other properties of living things. | |
| | Substitute other properties in the frame sentence: | T.: What are some other properties of living things?<br>Ss.: _____ is a property of living things. |
| | Combine the properties into a longer sentence: | Ss.: Eating, breathing and movement are properties of living things. |
| **Skill:** classification | 4. a. Using the word cards from 1., ask the students to <u>classify</u> the objects observed in the classroom into two groups under the headings living and non-living:<br>Living: a boy — Non-living: a table | Check on listening comprehension and production. |
| | Practice questions and answers related to the classification: | T.: How would we classify a boy?<br>Ss.: We would classify a boy as a living thing.<br>T.: Why do we classify a boy as a living thing?<br>Ss.: We classify a boy as a living thing because a boy has the properties of living things. |
| | b. Small Group Activity** — Naming and Classification. | |

** Small Group Activities

Whenever possible, students should be encouraged to work in pairs or small groups so that they can practice the language introduced through the lesson in a communication situation. Groups may be given the same or different tasks to perform. While students are working, circulate among the groups and encourage use of question and answer routines from the lesson. Ask the students about the task:

T.: What are you doing?

Ss.: We are labelling the pictures.
We are classifying the pictures into 2 groups - living things and non-living things.

At the end of the activity, students get together as a large group and discuss their answers, findings or observations, etc.

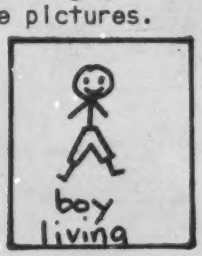
Naming and Classification

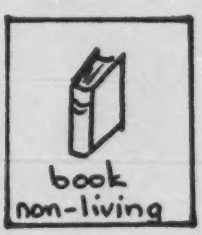
1. Prepare cards with pictures of living and non-living things. If cards are prepared in advance and laminated, students can write on them with grease pencil or washable felt marker. Writing can then be erased and the cards used again.

2. Give each group of students 10 cards, some with pictures of living things, others with pictures of non-living things.

3. Students work in pairs to label the pictures on the cards.

4. Students classify their pictures into two groups "living" and "non-living" using questions similar to those in activity 4.a. and label the pictures.




5. Students report back to the rest of the class, e.g.

"We have three living things - a boy, a teacher, a plant."

"We have seven non-living things - a car, a desk, a box, etc.

| SKILLS & VOCABULARY | SUGGESTED LANGUAGE ACTIVITIES | SUGGESTED LANGUAGE REINFORCEMENT |
|---|---|---|
| Vocabulary: example | c. Introduce frame sentences and ask the students to <u>give examples</u> of living and non-living things. | Check on listening comprehension and production. |
| | Introduce frame sentences and encourage substitutions from 4 a and b: | T.: Give me an example of a living thing.<br>Ss.: A_____ is an example of a living thing.<br>T.: How do you know?<br>Ss.: A_____ has the properties of living things.<br>T.: Give me an example of a non-living thing.<br>Ss.: A_____ is an example of a non-living thing.<br>T.: How do you know?<br>Ss.: A_____ does not have the properties of living things. |
| | Encourage students to combine their answers into longer sentences: | A boy is an example of a living thing because a boy has the properties of living things.<br>A book is an example of a non-living thing because a book doesn't have the properties of living things. |
| | d. Practice the sentence patterns and vocabulary in a writing exercise using vanishing technique.** | |
| | 5. a. Combine the new vocabulary and structures into a short reading passage:<br>1) We saw many living and non-living things around us.<br>2) Things that move, eat, and breathe are living things.<br>3) Things that don't move, eat and breath are non-living things.<br>4) Trees and green grass have the property of living things.<br>5) A table and books don't have the property of living things. | |
| | b. The passage may be used for<br>1. a modified cloze exercise (page )<br>2. transformation practice<br>(a) change "saw" to "observed" in sentence 1<br>(b) combine sentence<br>(c) add one more thing to sentence | |

** Vanishing Techniques

Writing based on a vanishing technique helps to reinforce sentence patterns through the progressive deletion of words in a model sentence. The exercise should be done orally first using the overhead projector and only after vocabulary items needed to complete the sentences have been introduced in print. Note that as clues are diminished students must pay closer attention to meaning.

## LIVING OR NON-LIVING ?

A boy is an example of a living thing.

A book is an example of a non-living thing.

1. A table is an example of a _____ thing.
2. A girl is an example of a _____ _____.
3. __ chair is __ example of __ _____ _____.
4. __ desk __ __ example __ __ _____ _____.
5. __ teacher __ __ _____ __ __ _____ _____.
6. __ dog __ __ _____ __ __ _____ _____.
7. __ _____ __ __ _____ __ __ living _____.
8. __ _____ __ __ _____ __ __ non-living. _____

| SKILLS & VOCABULARY | SUGGESTED LANGUAGE ACTIVITIES | SUGGESTED LANGUAGE REINFORCEMENT |
|---|---|---|
| Vocabulary: organism | 6. a. Introduce the teaching statement: Plants and animals are called ORGANISMS. | |
| Skill: classification | b. Write "organism" on the chalkboard as a heading for columns labelled "plants" and "animals." ORGANISMS / Plants Animals | |
| | Ask the students to classify the living things identified in Activity 4 as either plants or animals: | Check on listening comprehension and production. |
| | Ask questions related to the classification and encourage use of frame sentences: | T.: Is a dog an animal or a plant?<br>Ss.: _____ is _____.<br>A dog / A tree — an animal / a plant |
| | Encourage the use of longer sentences: | T.: Name 2 plants. (animals)<br>Ss.: Trees and grass are plants. |
| | c. Small group activity. Give students pictures of plants and animals (or word cards) to classify according to the diagram. Use the procedure from Activity 4. | |
| Skill: deductive reasoning | 7. a. Select pictures representing both living and non-living things. Ask the students whether or not the picture represents an organism and why. Develop the reasoning process through questioning: | T.: Is this an organism?<br>Ss.: Yes, it is./No it's not.<br>T.: Why is (isn't) it an organism?<br>Ss.: Because it's a plant/animal.<br>OR Because it's not a plant or an animal. |
| | b. Introduce the frame sentences and substitute the names of the things represented in the pictures in the blanks: | Plants and animals are organisms.<br>(A tree) is (a plant).<br>Therefore, (a tree) is an organism. |
| | c. Help the students to complete the worksheet on ORGANISMS.** | |

** ORGANISMS

1. Plants are organisms.
   Trees are plants,
   so trees are organisms.

2. Animals are _____.
   Dogs are animals,
   so dogs _____ organisms.

3. A plant is an organism.
   A tree is a _____,
   so a tree _____ an organism.

4. An animal _____ an organism.
   A dog is an _____,
   so a dog is _____ organism.

5. A plant _____ _____ organism.
   Grass is _____ _____,
   so grass _____ an _____.

6 Animals _____organisms.
   People _____ animals,
   so _____ _____ _____.

PART II AN ENVIRONMENT MUST PROVIDE AN ORGANISM WITH ITS BASIC NEEDS

A. An organism has basic needs if it is to survive.

B. Environment is everything living and non-living around an organism.

| SKILLS & VOCABULARY | SUGGESTED LANGUAGE ACTIVITIES | SUGGESTED LANGUAGE REINFORCEMENT |
|---|---|---|
| Vocabulary: survive<br>basic needs<br>water<br>air<br>protection<br>food<br>shelter<br>reproduction<br>control of waste<br>rest | 1. a. Ask students to <u>name</u> the things we need to live:<br>Introduce the frame sentence and record answers:<br>Introduce the word "survive" as a synonym for live.<br>b. Discuss the list and classify items listed into broad categories, e.g. food, protection, etc. Note that at this stage all the basic needs may not have been identified. | Check listening comprehension and production.<br>T.: What do we need in order to live?<br>Ss.: We need _____ in order to [live].<br>air<br>water<br>survive |
| Skills: reasoning<br>reporting<br>classification | 2. a. Group activity. Ask students to prepare a space-ship to take a monkey to the moon to start a colony. They must provide the monkey with all the things necessary to support life. Encourage the use of questions and answers such as:<br>Each group could prepare a report** to present to the class.<br>b. Small groups report to the class. Record their lists on the chalkboard.<br>c. Reach consensus on the eight basic needs for survival. | $S_1$.: What does the monkey need to live on the moon? OR What must the monkey have to survive on the moon?<br>$S_2$.: The monkey must have ____ in order to survive. OR The monkey needs _____ in order to survive. |
| | 3. a. Introduce a frame sentence and vocabulary:<br>b. Help the students to write sentences based on the frame sentence or to complete the word search puzzle.** | T.: What are the basic needs of every organism?<br>Ss.: _____ is a basic need of every organism.<br>Water<br>Air |

PART II — TECHNIQUES AND SAMPLE ACTIVITIES

** GROUP REPORT

## MONKEYS ON THE MOON

1. The monkey must have _____ in order to survive on the moon.
2. The monkey must have . . .

-

-

---

**

## WORD SEARCH

Find the words in this sentence:

"All living things need water, shelter, air, rest, food, protection and will give off waste and will reproduce.

A B C A L L R S T L I V R S Y V W X Q Z
C Y R R G H K L L I V I N G M N O P S T
A C E F H J L N P R T V X Z B D F H J K
L N P R T V X Z Y L R E W N O S Y Z T V
C T H I N G S M O I L N E E D S N E A P
W A R N S W A T E R C Y P G U O I S N C
M T S H E L T E R E S T R Y C N A C H G
C P I S Q Y V S N M O C A I R P Z Y X T
B A R E S T A C O F O C D E F H J K M O
R T S C Y Z P R O T E C T I O N Y M F C
M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z A B C D E F
B C A A N D A W I L L M L N I Z Y T S C
O U T N E R S V I N P O R C G I V E O F
Y L S T W X A B L L I V N G N E E S D I
R I O F F C T N V I W A S T E D L V I N
C A B O C A N D R L Y Z N X V C R L N T
A C D F H J L N P R T V X Z B D F H J L
M O Q S U W Y Z A W I L L C T U V W X Y
R E P R O D U C E F L C W X A C T R Y U
W I R C H T Y W R Q W E R T Y U I O P L

| SKILLS & VOCABULARY | SUGGESTED LANGUAGE ACTIVITIES | SUGGESTED LANGUAGE REINFORCEMENT |
|---|---|---|
| Vocabulary: environment | 4. a. Introduce teaching statement<br>Environment is everything that is around an organism.<br>Ask students to observe what is around them, using the frame sentence to name both living and non-living things: | Check listening comprehension and production.<br>T.: Name some things that are part of our environment.<br>Ss.: _____ is part of our environment.<br>A tree<br>Air |
| | b. Ask students to describe the environments of different organisms, e.g. a fish, an earthworm. Students may wish to illustrate different environments. | |
| | c. Develop the idea that organisms obtain basic needs from the environment by imagining organisms in alien environments. Use questions and answers such as: | T.: Can a man survive under water? Why?<br>Ss.: A man can't survive under water because there is no air.<br>T.: Can a fish survive under water? Why?<br>etc. |
| | d. Establish that if an organism is to survive in an environment the seven basic needs must be there. | T.: What do you need to breathe?<br>Ss.: Air.<br>T.: Where do you get air?<br>Ss.: From my environment.<br>(Extend to other needs, other organisms). |
| | e. Help the students to complete the Basic Needs Puzzle. | |

56

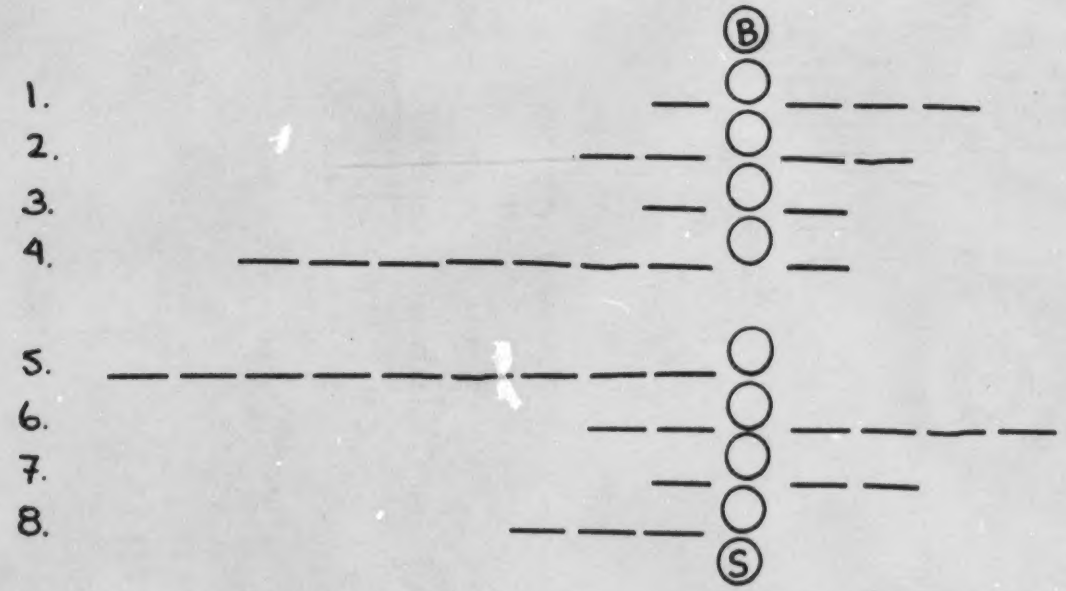
## BASIC NEEDS PUZZLE

I Fill in the blanks.

All living things ...

1. need _____ to drink.
2. give off _____.
3. need _____ to breathe.
4. _____ to have their young.
5. need _____ from their enemies.
6. need a home or _____.
7. must have quiet times or _____.
8. need _____ to eat.

II Copy your answers in the blank spaces.




1. _ _ _ _ _
2. _ _ _ _ _
3. _ _ _
4. _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _
5. _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _
6. _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _
7. _ _ _ _
8. _ _ _

III Finish the sentence. The letters in the circles spell the right answer.

The environment must provide an organism with its _____ _____

Part III ADAPTATIONS HELP ORGANISMS TO SURVIVE IN THEIR ENVIRONMENT

A. Adaptations are changes in an organism that help it to survive.
B. Adaptations may be structural.
C. Adaptations may be behavioral.

| SKILLS & VOCABULARY | SUGGESTED LANGUAGE ACTIVITIES | SUGGESTED LANGUAGE REINFORCEMENT |
|---|---|---|
| Skills: prediction<br>inference | 1. a. On the overhead, show the students the first picture from the prediction worksheet.** Discuss and describe the picture. Record students' observations, e.g. he is walking down the street he is carrying books, etc. | Check on listening comprehension and production. |
| | Question the students about where the boy might be going. Introduce the frame sentence: | T.: Where might the boy be going?<br>Ss.: He might be going to _____. |
| | | T.: How do you know? (school, the library)<br>Ss.: He is carrying books. |
| | Encourage longer answers using the frame: | He might be going to _____ because _____. |
| Vocabulary: might<br>think<br>guess<br>predict | b. Repeat with the other pictures. | |
| | 2. a. Introduce the language of prediction. Show the pictures again and introduce a new frame sentence. | T.: Where do you think the _____ is going?<br>Ss.: I think the ____ is going to ____ because ____. |
| | b. Substitute the words "guess" and "predict" in the frame. | guess<br>predict |
| | c. Give the students a copy of the prediction worksheet ** and have them label the pictures using the frame sentence. | |
| | d. Extend the notion of prediction to other situations. | T.: What do you think will happen at 4:00? Why?<br>What do you think the weather will be like tomorrow? Why?<br>What do you think you will do on the weekend? Why? |

** Prediction Worksheet

Where do you think they're going?

| SKILLS & VOCABULARY | SUGGESTED LANGUAGE ACTIVITIES | SUGGESTED LANGUAGE REINFORCEMENT |
|---|---|---|
| Vocabulary: adapt<br>adaptation | 3. a. Ask students to state what hands are good for. Use the frame sentence and record student responses: | Check listening comprehension and production.<br>Hands are [good] for _____.<br>[adapted] holding picking up things |
| | b. Substitute "adapt" in the frame sentence: | |
| | c. Extend the frame sentence by combining in series. | T.: Name two things hands (legs, etc.) are adapted for?<br>Ss.: [Hands] are adapted for _____ and _____.<br>[Legs]<br>[Teeth] |
| | d. Repeat for legs, teeth, eyes, etc. | |
| | 4. a. Present the teaching statement:<br>[Hands and legs are called Adaptations] | T.: Hands and legs are adaptations. Name some other adaptations. |
| | b. Encourage substitutions using student responses from 3 above | Ss.: _____ and _____ are called adaptations.<br>_____ are adaptations for ____ and _____. |
| | c. Combine material from Activities 3 & 4 in a substitution exercise. ** | |
| | 5. a. Lead the students in a discussion of the reason for adaptations using questions and answers such as: | T.: Hands are adaptation for holding. Why is holding important?<br>Ss.: Holding is important for picking things up, eating, etc.<br>T.: Hands are adaptations for survival. |
| Skills: observation<br>prediction | b. Show pictures of different animals, e.g. rabbit kangaroo, duck, fish, etc. Ask the students to describe the animals using adjectives to qualify the various adaptations. Use frame sentence and record student responses: | Check on listening comprehension and production.<br>T.: Describe the rabbit's ears.<br>Ss.: [The rabbit's ears] are [long.] |
| | c. Discuss the reason for the adaptations observed in b.<br>Introduce longer frame sentence: | T.: Why do you think a rabbit has long ears?<br>Ss.: I think a rabbit has long ears so he can hear well.<br>T.: [Long ears] are adapted for [hearing well.] |
| | d. If the students are at a fairly advanced level of language, an expansion or a combined substitution and expansion exercise could be performed.** | |

** Substitution and Expansion

1. Substitution

Once the students are comfortable with a sentence pattern introduced as a frame sentence, write it on the chalkboard leaving blanks for the key words.

_____ are adapted for _____ and _____.
(1) (2) (3)

Ask the students to list as many adaptations as they can think of and write them (students may dictate spelling) under blank (1). Ask about each adaptation in turn and list student responses under blanks (2) and (3).

| _____ | are adapted for | _____ | and | _____. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Hands | | | holding | |
| Legs | | | picking things up | |
| Feet | | | scratching | |
| Eyes | | | running | |
| Ears | | | climbing | |
| etc. | | | etc. | |

Ask questions related to the frame, e.g. "What are hands adapted for?" Direct students to ask one another questions about the various adaptations. The exercise may be repeated in writing.

2. Expansion

Begin with a frame sentence leaving space for expansions.

_____ legs are adapted for running _____.
(1) (2)

Ask students to recall the different kinds of legs they observed and list them under (1). Ask them to suggest different ways we say run and list them under (2).

| _____ | legs are adapted for running | _____. |
|---|---|---|
| Long | | quickly |
| Strong | | slowly |

Ask questions related to the frame, e.g. "What are long legs adapted for?"

3. Substitution and Expansion

Combining and questioning techniques from 1. and 2. A substitution and expansion table can be built up.

| _____ | _____ | are adapted for | _____ | _____. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Long | legs | | running | quickly |

Ask questions related to the frame.

| SKILLS & VOCABULARY | SUGGESTED LANGUAGE ACTIVITIES | SUGGESTED LANGUAGE REINFORCEMENT |
|---|---|---|
| Vocabulary: structural adaptations | 6. a. Ask students to list what they have that helps them survive. Introduce frame sentence and record student responses: | Check on listening comprehension and production.<br>T.: What do we have that helps us to survive?<br>Ss.: _____ help us to survive. (Hands, legs) |
| | b. Expand the frame sentence by incorporating frame sentences from 3. | T.: How do hands (legs, etc.) help us to survive?<br>Ss.: _____ help us to survive because ____ are adapted for... |
| | c. Present teaching statement. | T.: Name some other structural adaptations.<br>Ss.: _____ are structural adaptations. (Hands, Teeth) |
| | Things that we have are called STRUCTURAL ADAPTATIONS | |
| | Introduce new sentence frame and encourage substitutions: | T.: Why are they called structural adaptations?<br>Ss.: They are things we have. |
| | d. Lead the students in a discussion of the structural adaptations of the animals described in 5. b. | T.: What does a ____ have to help it survive? etc. |
| Vocabulary: behavioral adaptation | 7. a. Ask students to think about what they do that helps them to survive when they are in danger. Introduce new frame sentence: | T.: What might you do when you are in danger?<br>Ss.: When I am in danger, I might _____. (run away, hide) |
| | b. Present teaching statement: | T.: Name some other behavioral adaptations.<br>Ss.: _____ is a behavioral adaptation. (Running away, Hiding) |
| | Things that we do are called BEHAVIORAL ADAPTATIONS | |
| | Introduce new frame and encourage substitutions: | T.: Why are they called behavioral adaptations?<br>Ss.: Because they are things we do. |
| | c. Lead the students in a discussion of the behavioral adaptations of animals. | T.: What might a ____ do if it is frightened? etc. |
| Skill: classifying | 8. a. Help students to distinguish between behavioral and structural adaptations. Use word cards from 6 & 7 above and frame sentences: | T.: (Is running away)(Are legs) a behavioral or structural adaptation?<br>Ss.: _____ are structural adaptations because they are something we have.<br>_____ is a behavioral adaptation because it is something we do. |
| | b. Use question and answer worksheet to reinforce the difference between structural and behavioral adaptations.** | |

** QUESTION AND ANSWER EXERCISE

## BEHAVIOURAL AND STRUCTURAL ADAPTATIONS

1. Is running away a behavioural or structural adaptation? Why?

2. Are legs a behavioural or structural adaptation? Why?

3. Are teeth a behavioural or structural adaptation? Why?

4. Is hiding a behavioural or structural adaptation? Why?

5. Are claws a behavioural or structural adaptation? Why?

6. Is flying a behavioural or structural adaptation? Why?

| SKILLS & VOCABULARY | SUGGESTED LANGUAGE ACTIVITIES | SUGGESTED LANGUAGE REINFORCEMENT |
|---|---|---|
| Skill: prediction | 9. a. Have students role play (page ) the situation of a smaller boy being threatened by a bully. | |
| | b. Discuss the experience with the students and then introduce the frame sentences: | T.: What might you do if you're frightened by a bully?<br>Ss.: If I'm frightened by a bully, I might _____. (fight, hide) |
| | | T.: What do you use to fight?<br>Ss.: I use my _____ to _____. |
| | c. Encourage the student to combine the answers to the two questions: | T.: What might you do if you're frightened by a bully?<br>Ss.: If I'm frightened by a bully, I might use my hands to fight. |
| | 10. a. Divide the students into 3 groups and ask each group to role play and/or discuss one of the following situations:<br>(1) a cat frightened by a dog<br>(2) a duck frightened by a fox<br>(3) a small fish frightened by a larger fish | |
| | b. Discuss the experience with the students using questions and answers previously introduced. | |

Construct a table on the chalkboard:

| Child | Cat | Duck | Fish |
|---|---|---|---|
| If I'm frightened by a bully, | If a cat is frightened by a dog, | If a duck is frightened by a fox, | If a smaller fish is frightened by a larger fish, |
| I might use my legs to run away. | It might use its claws to climb a tree. | It might use its wings to fly away. | It might use its tail and fins to swim away. |
| I might use fists and feet to fight. | It might use its claws to climb a tree. | It might use its wings and beak to fight. | It might use its teeth to fight. |

c. Help the students to distinguish between behavioral and structural adaptations in the sentences in the table. Lead them to use the longer frame sentence:

When I use my _____ to _____, my _____ are structural adaptations and _____ is a behavioral adaptation.

d. Help students to write short paragraphs based on the sentence.

** Controlled Paragraph Writing

Depending on the language level of the students, one of the following techniques could be used to construct a paragraph. Format (indentation, capitalization, punctuation) could be discussed as the activity proceeds.

1. Copying

Students at low levels of fluency may simply copy the sentences from the table in paragraph form.

The Cat

If a cat is frightened by a dog, it might use its claws to climb a tree. It might use its claws and teeth to fight.

2. Frame Paragraph

Small groups of students may be given a paragraph with key words deleted and then copy it in correct form, filling in the missing words.

The Cat

If a cat is frightened by a dog, it might use its claws to _____ a tree. When it uses its _____ to climb a _____, its claws are a _____ adaptation and climbing a tree is a behavioral _____. A _____ might use its claws and teeth, to _____. When it uses its _____ and _____ to _____, its _____ and _____ are structural _____ and _____ is a _____ adaptation.

3. Questions

Students may be given a set of questions to answer in complete sentences. The questions are structured so that the answers when written one after another constitute a paragraph.

The Cat

If a cat is frightened by a dog, how might it use its claws? When a cat uses its claws to climb a tree, are its claws behavioral or structural adaptations? Is climbing a tree a behavioral or structural adaptation? How might a cat use its claws and teeth? When a cat uses its claws and teeth to fight, are its claws and teeth behavioral or structural adaptations? Is fighting a behavioral or structural adaptation?

Extended Practice in Speaking, Reading and Writing

Once the students are familiar with concepts and language in Parts I - III of the sample unit, they may engage in further activities to reinforce concepts and language.

The following is an example of an integrated speaking, reading and writing activity based on the language structures and vocabulary of the sample unit.

ADAPTATIONS HELP US

Yesterday afternoon I went down to the stream to fish. While I was sitting on the bank and holding my line in the water, I saw a bear coming out of the bush on the other side of the stream. I thought the bear was coming to drink water and to fish. The bear tried to paw a fish out of the water, but the fish was too quick and it swam away. A rabbit saw the bear and it hid among some brown leaves. When the bear saw me, he started to cross the stream. I quickly picked up my line and ran away. As the bear crossed the stream, two ducks escaped by flying away.

The fish is safe because it could swim away quickly. The rabbit is safe because it could hide. I'm safe because I could run away and the ducks are safe because the bear couldn't fly.

All living things are organisms. A fish, a rabbit, a duck and I are all living things and therefore we are organisms. All organisms have adaptations that help them to survive. The fish has fins which are adapted for swimming. The rabbit's fur is adapted for changing to summer and winter colors. My strong legs are adapted for running and the duck's wings are adapted for flying. Fins, color change, strong legs, and wings are some of the adaptations of different organisms.

Now, if I had fins, strong legs, wings and could change my color, no one would ever be able to catch me.

1. The students listen to the passage as read by the teacher.

2. Discuss the paragraph with the students using literal and interpretive questions.

3. The students practice reading the paragraph themselves, either in unison after the teacher, silently or aloud independently.

4. Use the story as a modified cloze exercise. (See page 60).

5. Use the story as the basis for extended sentence combining practice.

   a. Present the sentences to the students on the overhead projector first. Help them to combine the sentences orally. Note that:

      (1) Sentences may be combined in more than one way.

      (2) Sentence structure can be directed by providing clues.

      (3) Punctuation can be added by including punctuation marks as clues.

   b. Give pairs of students a copy of the worksheet and let them work together to combine the sentences in writing.

   c. Stop the students after the first set of sentences and compare results. Have the students change partners for the second set of sentences. Stop and compare sentences. Change partners again for the third set.

6. When all the sentences have been combined, help the students to retell the story orally. Students may work in pairs and tell the story to one another. A student may tell the story to the class.

7. Help the students to write the story (or a paragraph from the story) as they remember it, adding any information they like.

8. Students may work in pairs or small groups to edit each others' stories.

9. Students may read the completed stories to the class.

10. The stories may be assembled in booklet form, illustrated and added to the classroom library.

SENTENCE COMBINING

First Paragraph

1. I went down to the stream.
   I went fishing yesterday afternoon.

2. I was sitting on the bank. ( While... )
   I was holding my line in the water.
   I saw a bear coming out of the bush on
   the other side of the stream.

3. I thought the bear was coming to drink water.
   I thought the bear was coming to fish.

4. The bear tried to paw the fish (..., but...)
   out of the water.
   The fish was too quick.
   The fish swam away.

5. A rabbit was nearby.
   The rabbit saw the bear.
   The rabbit hid among some brown leaves.

6. The bear saw me. (When...,)
   The bear started to cross the stream.

7. I quickly picked up my line.
   I quickly ran away.

8. The bear crossed the stream. (As...,)
   Two ducks escaped by flying away.

SENTENCE COMBINING (continued)

Second Paragraph

9. The fish is safe. (... because...)
   It could swim away quickly.

10. The rabbit is safe. (... because...)
    It could hide.

11. I'm safe. (... because...)
    I could run away.

12. The ducks are safe. (... because...)
    The bear could not fly.

Third Paragraph

13. All living things are organisms.

14. A fish is a living thing. (...; therefore, ...)
    A rabbit is a living thing.
    A duck is a living thing.
    I am a living thing.
    We are organisms.

15. All organisms have adaptations. (... that ... (them)...)
    Adaptations help organisms to survive.

16. The fish have fins. (... which...)
    The fins are adapted for swimming.

SENTENCE COMBINING (continued)

17. The rabbit's fur is adapted.
It changes from summer to winter colours.

18. My strong legs are adapted (... and ...)
for running.
The duck's wings are adapted for flying.

19. Fins are an adaptation of an organism.
Colour change is an adaptation of an organism.
Strong legs are an adaptation of an organism.
Wings are an adaptation of an organism.

20. If I had fins, no one would be (If...)
able to catch me.
If I had wings, no one would be
able to catch me.
If I had strong legs, no one would
be able to catch me.
If I could change my colour, no
one would be able to catch me.

BIBLIOGRAPHY TO SAMPLE UNITS

Braun, Carl and Froese, Victor. An Experience-Based Approach to Language and Reading.
Baltimore: University Park Press, 1977.

Herber, Hal. Go! Reading in the Content Areas, Levels 4 - 8.
Toronto: Scholastic Book Services, 1974-75.

Stauffer, Russell. The Language Experience Approach to the Teaching of Reading.
New York: Harper and Row, 1970.

Thonis, E. W. Teaching Reading to Non-English Speakers
New York: Collier MacMillan International, 1977.

Tough, Joan. Talking and Learning.
London: Ward Lock Educational, 1977.

# CHAPTER THREE

# MULTICULTURALISM IN THE CLASSROOM

## Background

Multiculturalism in the curriculum represents the school's response to the needs of all children learning and growing up in a multicultural society. The school's response to cultural pluralism in society must be congruent with the broad goals of public education in Manitoba.

In keeping with these broad goals, multiculturalism stresses that the principle of starting the teaching/learning process with the child's own knowledge and experience, must be applied to the teaching of children from all backgrounds. Children whose background knowledge, interests and experience are not adequately reflected in the learning environment should be provided with appropriate support in their efforts to achieve confidence, positive identity, self-worth and academic success. Furthermore, multiculturalism stresses the need for groups to share cultures and initiate activities that will foster common cultural practices and attitudes, and at the same time support the maintenance of cultural groups in a pluralistic society. Multicultural education advocates an acceptance of and a commitment to the notion that cultural pluralism has significant educational and social value to society.

Although studies have shown that Canadian attitudes are changing and cultural diversity is seen more and more as a positive presence in society, not all Canadians are equally committed to the concept of multiculturalism. Some Canadians expect that minority groups will adapt to and integrate into the dominant culture in society; others believe that all groups have the freedom to maintain those parts of their heritage and culture of greatest value to them here in Canada. The government of Canada is committed to the preservation of cultural groups with opportunities for integration into the mainstream culture available for those who choose to do so. It is assumed that ethnic background will not be a barrier to integration into the mainstream.

Education for cultural pluralism must begin by giving recognition to the child's home and community experience. Secondly, since children from ethnic minorities go through the emotional experience of adapting and integrating into the mainstream of society, efforts must be made by the school to indicate ways in which groups and individuals can rationalize their participation in two cultures in a manner that is acceptable to the dominant group, the minority group and to the individual. Thirdly, when cultural pluralism is viewed as an asset to society at large, efforts must be made to support the maintenance of cultural groups. As attitudes towards one's home culture are influenced by experiences at school, it is necessary for schools to initiate activities that will foster growth and support for cultural minorities.

A commitment to the concept of multiculturalism is a significant factor in achieving the broad goals of multiculturalism. Therefore, it is important that teachers have opportunities to discuss issues and concerns in the area of multiculturalism so as to understand how the goals of multiculturalism are consistent with the goals of the public school.

Implementing Multiculturalism in The Classroom

In order to implement the objectives of multicultural education (page 3,4) schools should:

1. modify the regular curriculum to reflect the background of the student population where the existing curriculum fails to do so

2. follow suggested criteria for selecting activities and materials

3. and emphasize the importance of the teacher's influence in the learning process.

(For information on four organizational approaches to multicultural education, see pp. 155-157.)

Changing the Curriculum. Material with a multicultural focus can be used to develop basic skills and could therefore replace some material in the existing curriculum. In a multicultural situation the materials and activities used for instruction should reflect the presence of different cultural groups, including those in the class or the community. The curriculum needs to reflect an awareness of the developmental stages of children with respect to their understanding of topics such as language, culture, bias, prejudice, race and religion.

Selection of Activities and Materials.* In planning activities to serve the aims of multiculturalism, it is necessary to consider the following:

Sensitivity - Will this activity increase understanding of the culture or cultures? Will it help to create a positive self-image?

Accuracy - Is this a correct interpretation of the culture? Can suitable references be obtained to establish accuracy?

---

*Multiculturalism in Action. Ontario Ministry of Education. (Toronto: 1978).

Current Information - Is this activity relevant to contemporary experience? Do the present life-styles of ethnic groups in Canada maintain these values/customs?

Anti-stereotyping - Will this activity create or reinforce stereotyped images of an ethnic group?

Resources - Are basic resources (materials and personnel) available to develop this activity and do they follow the criteria set down for selecting activities?

Student Level - Is the activity suitable for the level of skills and understanding of the children concerned?

Teacher Influence in the Learning Process. Teachers need to have a commitment to and an understanding of the goals of multicultural education in order to maintain a creative response to the multicultural reality of our schools.

Teachers of students whose culture and language differ from those projected in the teaching materials and by the teaching staff must link teaching-learning activities to experiences the children have had in their home. Multicultural education recognizes the importance of the child's own cultural experiences as useful resources in the teaching/learning process. Whenever possible, topics should be treated first from the perspective of a specific group in the community and then proceed to a study of this topic as it applies to others.

Teaching situations should be based on some common understandings and experiences. It is generally taken for granted that the kinds of experiences that are common in the dominant community will be understood by all. In cross-cultural teaching situations, it is important to verify as part of the teaching process the extent to which past experience and knowledge will apply. In many teaching situations, learning may not take place because it is falsely assumed that children have the experience and knowledge required for the task.

Multicultural education stresses the importance of providing concrete and enjoyable experiences for students who have limited experience in the dominant culture. At the same time, the teacher should give positive recognition to successful experiences and achievements that take place within a child's own culture. This kind of reinforcement creates a positive image for the child and places a value on his cultural group.

## CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

Following are some examples of activities that may be used to develop multicultural understanding. The activities have been designed to emphasize that students share many universal human experiences regardless of their ethnic background.

1. They share the survival needs of food, shelter and clothing.

2. They share many of the same feelings, e.g. love, fear, anger, pride, etc.

3. They share or will share experiences common to certain age groups, e.g. learning to talk, walk, play, work, become an adult, marry, have children, etc.

4. They share the need to communicate in words, pictures, song or dance.

*Multiculturalism in Action has provided the foundation for many of the following activities.

BASIC SURVIVAL - FOOD

| CLASSROOM | LIBRARY | HOME | COMMUNITY |
|---|---|---|---|
| Plant seeds which grow in different climates and observe results. Discuss the relationship of climate and its effect on growth.<br><br>Pictures of different food could stimulate a classroom discussion of where they are grown and why.<br><br>Grow mung beans (4 to 5 days growth). Use to make a salad. Students could observe a life cycle of a plant as the possible source of food.<br><br>Students could smell and feel food brought to school, i.e. spices, sugar, and discuss where they could from.<br><br>Students could discuss cooking utensils used in their homes. They could model these in plasticene or clay. | Additional Research<br><br>Students could research the part played by food on special occasions such as weddings, a harvest, thanksgiving, etc.<br><br>Students could research the ways in which food is preserved. | Parents could be asked for specific food items that the students could discuss and illustrate.<br><br>Parents could be invited to the class and explain customs or demonstrate how to prepare ethnic dishes. | Students could visit shops in the community that sell goods that are imported from various countries.<br><br>Children could visit homes or ethnic restaurants to see how food is prepared. |

Resources

Carle, Eric. The Tiny Seed. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell, 1970.
Cooper, Terry Touff & Ratner, Marilyn. Many Hands Cooking: An International Cookbook for Girls and Boys. UNICEF, 1974.
Floethe, Louise L. Farming Around the World. Scribner, 1970.
Goaman, Muriel, 'Through the Ages' Food. Melmont, Illinois, 1963.
Jam, Handy. Plants - What do Green Plants Need for Growth? (filmstrip)
Jordan, Helene J. How a Seed Grows. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1972.
Manitoba Department of Education. You Can Eat Them You Know. Kit 970.1.
Morris, Loverne. The American Indian as Farmer. England: Wills & Hepworth, 1968.
Nickerson, Betty. How the World Grows Its Food. Toronto: Ryerson, 1965.
Selsam, Millicent, E. The Apple and Other Fruits. New York: William Morrow & Co., 1973.
Shannon, Terry. About Food and Where It Comes From. Melmont, 1961.
Turnbull, Marguerite. Crops in Many Lands. England. Hulton Education.

BASIC SKILLS — SHELTER

| CLASSROOM | LIBRARY | HOME | COMMUNITY |
|---|---|---|---|
| Children could look at pictures of different shelters in a variety of countries and discuss how they are adapted to climate, geography and life style.<br><br>They could draw pictures of different types of housing.<br><br>Students from other countries could compare their homes in their native countries to their homes here and/or with Canadian homes. | Additional Research<br><br>Students could research the construction of their ancestors homes, e.g. wigwams to show how they were an outgrowth of a certain life style.<br><br>Students could research different types of building materials and their purposes. | Students might bring photographs or postcards of street scenes from different countries. They could compare colors and styles. | Students might take a field trip to a location where new houses are being constructed.<br><br>The class might walk around the neighbourhood looking at how houses have to be constructed to deal with the cold. |

Resources

Alder, Irving & Ruth. Houses. (The Reason Why Books). Longmans, 1964.

Bolian, Polly & Schima, Marilyn. I Know a House Builder. New York: G. P. Putnam and Sons, 1968.

Burns, William A. A World Full of Homes. McGraw-Hill, 1953.

Carter, Katherine. True Book of Houses. Children's Press, 1957.

Le Sieg, Theo. Come Over to My House. New York: Random House, 1966.

Homes (Macdonald Starters Series). Great Britain: Macdonald & Co., 1975.

Morey, Joan. Let's Look at Houses & Homes. Soccer.

Shapp, Martha & Charles. Let's Find Out About Houses. Franklin Watts, 1962.

Wilkinson, Jean & Ned. House Construction. Wisconsin: Sextant Systems, 1970.

BASIC SURVIVAL — CLOTHING

| CLASSROOM | LIBRARY | HOME | COMMUNITY |
|---|---|---|---|
| Use clippings from newspapers and fashion magazines to introduce influences of ethnic styles to modern clothes.<br><br>Discuss use of uniforms. Write stories about favourite uniforms.<br><br>Have a dress-up box in the classroom. Discuss how we feel when we change dress.<br><br>Make ethnic costumes for cut-outs, dolls or puppets.<br><br>Paint clay dolls in national dress.<br><br>Make a mural, collage or photo essay of children wearing national dress.<br><br>Touch different fabrics and learn related vocabulary. | Additional Research<br><br>Students could research the relationship of fabrics used to availability and to environment. | A parent might demonstrate special skills such as embroidery, beading, etc.<br><br>Parents might help organize an ethnic fashion show.<br><br>Students might conduct an opinion survey of their friends or relatives about modern styles. | Students might visit museums to see clothing from different countries.<br><br>Students could visit places involved in the production of fabrics and clothing, e.g. weaving shops, garment factories, etc. |

Resources

Cooper, Edmund J. Let's Look at Costumes. Frederick Muller Ltd., 1965.

Clothes. (Macdonald Starter Series). Great Britain: Macdonald & Co., 1975.

McCall, Edith S. How We Get Our Clothing. Chicago: Benefic Press, 1961.

Powers, William K. Indian Dancing and Costumes. (Here is Your Hobby Series). Putnam, 1966.

Shannon, Terry. About Ready-To-Wear Clothes. Melmont, 1961.

Turnbull, Marguerite. Other People's Clothes. Great Britain: Hulton Education.

GAMES

| CLASSROOM | LIBRARY | HOME | COMMUNITY |
|---|---|---|---|
| Discuss Canada's national sport. Find the national sport of other countries.<br><br>Make a list of games invented in North America, eg. hula hoop, frisbee. Try writing instructions for their use.<br><br>Find out how hopscotch is played in different countries.<br><br>Make up a game you could play in these places -<br>under water, in a tree, on top of a wall, etc.<br><br>Write the rules for the game.<br><br>Discuss games the children play outdoors. Have children teach each other the games. Work together in writing the instructions. | Additional Research<br><br>Research games played in various countries. Does climate determine the type of game? Are similar games played in different countries?<br><br>Research the Olympics - history, events, etc. | Interview family members for games they used to play as children.<br><br>Describe games that are played in the adult community. | Invite sports personalities to the class to discuss the training, competition, discipline involved in playing a game. |

Resources

Fowke, Edith. Sally Go Round The Sun. (Has matching record). Toronto: McClelland & Stewart, 1969.

Hofsinde, Robert. Indian Games & Crafts. McLeod, 1957.

Menke, Frank G. Encyclopedia of Sports. 3rd rev. ed. New York: A. S. Barnes, 1963.

FEELINGS

| CLASSROOM | LIBRARY | HOME | COMMUNITY |
|---|---|---|---|
| Collect pictures that show people expressing their feelings. Discuss and record feelings portrayed.<br><br>Discuss which feelings are familiar to them and which are shared by people everywhere.<br><br>Make paper bag masks portraying different feelings. Do they like talking to people with masks on?<br><br>Have children mime feelings, e.g. showing people that they like them, being in a hurry, feeling lazy, hungry, etc.<br><br>Discuss what characteristics make a hero or heroine.<br><br>Develop murals of national and popular heroes from different countries. | Additional Research<br><br>Read or have the students read short stories from different cultures. Discuss emotions portrayed in the stories.<br><br>Read or have students read stories of a hero or heroine from one of the ethno-cultural groups in the classroom. Write or act out some of these stories in order to develop a sense of pride. | Have the students write about a family member they admire. Enlist the help of the family to provide necessary information.<br><br>Have the students interview family and friends about the advantages and disadvantages about moving or resettling. | Invite visitors from a variety of cultures to talk about their feelings about school, their feelings in moving to a new place.<br><br>Invite visitors representing the cultures present in the class to talk about their jobs (role models). |

Resources

Adelman, Bob & Hall, Susan. On and Off the Street. New York: The Viking Press, 1970.

Mosel, Arlene. Tikki Tikki Tembo. (Chinese Folktale). New York: Scholastic Book Services, 1970.

Paskievich, John. A Place Not Our Own. Winnipeg: Queenston House, 1978.

_____. North End Winnipeg. Queenston House, 1978.

Perm. Instructo Corporation. Understanding Our Feelings. (Set of 28 photographs).

Women's Educational Press. Come With Us: Children Speak for Themselves, 1978.

151

152

UNIVERSAL HUMAN EXPERIENCES

| CLASSROOM | LIBRARY | HOME | COMMUNITY |
|---|---|---|---|
| Discuss what students think it would be like to live in a large family, small family.<br><br>Discuss activities families share no matter how they differ in size, e.g. eating, sleeping, talking, washing, buying clothes.<br><br>What do adults do for us? What do we do for them? Illustrate one list of adult caring chores and one of children's chores.<br><br>What jobs do you always do?<br><br>What jobs do you occassionally do?<br><br>Discuss what makes a person an adult. What is the difference between being an adult or being a child.<br><br>Draw a line on the chalkboard. Tell the children that it represents their life from birth to the present. Divide the line into the number of years it represents. Mark each year on the time line. Have the children suggest major events that would be common to all children for each year represented. | Additional Research<br><br>Students could research different ways of performing daily activities, e.g. sleeping, types of beds, bedding, etc.<br><br>Find out about jobs children do in other countries. How many years do they go to school?<br><br>Read literature based on another child's life and make a time line of the character's life. | Students could ask their family members their childhood responsibilities and report back to the class. Compare and contrast. Why did the jobs vary? | Invite members of ethnic groups to discuss the traditions and customs surrounding events such as christening, marriage, funerals, etc.<br><br>Students could visit Senior Citizens homes and compare life experiences.<br><br>Teachers could encourage volunteers from the community to act as resources and friends to the students in the hope that relationships such as "grandfriend" or "big sister" may develop. |

UNIVERSAL HUMAN EXPERIENCES con't. . .

| CLASSROOM | LIBRARY | HOME | COMMUNITY |
|---|---|---|---|
| Have children illustrate experiences from the past and place them at appropriate places on the time line.<br><br>Have children make up verses beginning with "When we are one . . . Then we are two . . ."<br><br>Discuss experiences common to teenagers, adults, old people. | | | |

Resources

Chilton, Shirley, Roy & Robert. Everyone Has Important Jobs To Do. Chicago: Children's Press, 1970.

Maury, Ines. My Mother The Mail Carrier. (Also in Spanish). Connecticut: Feminist Press, 1976.

Mayer, Mercer. Just For You. New York: Golden Press, 1975.

Victor, Joan Berg. The World is Round. New York: Grosset & Dunlap, 1974.

Films

Gurdeep Singh Bains. National Film Board

My Name is Susan Yee. National Film Board

Veronica. National Film Board.

| CLASSROOM | LIBRARY | HOME | COMMUNITY |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Body Language**<br>Take turns pretending to be in a new place without knowing the language and trying to communicate with gestures and facial expression.<br><br>**Greetings**<br>Ask children how members of their family greet each other. How do they say good-bye. How do family greetings differ from those for friends.<br><br>**Art**<br>Study a print or photograph collection of a particular culture. Ask the children what they can deduce about the culture from the pictures.<br><br>**Music**<br>Develop a class collection of tapes and records of music from different countries.<br><br>Develop a listening game. Play records from different cultures. Children try to guess from which country the music originates.<br><br>Develop an audio-visual project on the part that music plays in different cultures. Include traditional ceremonies and celebrations as well as the more modern. | | Ask parents to identify famous artists from their culture. | Have resource people from different cultures tell how they meet and greet each other.<br><br>Take a trip to an art gallery.<br><br>Invite resource people from the community to play musical instruments from their countries, interpreting instrument and music at the level of the students and allowing participation where possible. |





**Resources**

Berlin, Anne & Paul. Dance-A-Folk-Song. (record and book). Bowmar Publishing Corp., 1974.
The Boy Next Door, National Film Board.

# CHAPTER FOUR

# ASSESSMENT

## Rationale

Assessment is an important aspect of instructional decision-making and is an important as selecting appropriate teaching methods and materials.

Relevant and precise assessment techniques are especially important for the student who cannot participate in the mainstream of education due to difficulties with the language of instruction. At all levels of language competence, relevant and precise assessments should be followed by prescriptive programs that will assist the student in developing communicative competence in the optional time.

Educators should be very aware of the multitude of unresolved issues with the assessment of ESL students and others of limited proficiency in English. In the past, discriminatory assessment procedures, especially certain types of norm-referenced instruments, have led to the placement of such students in grade levels below their level of maturity or in special education programs.

## Goals of Assessment

The goals of assessment are to measure proficiency, achievement or aptitude. It would be an exhaustive task to present the philosophical and practical issues that surround the use of these assessment approaches.

Whatever form assessment takes it should be related to specific educational and administrative goals. The measurement of proficiency, achievement or aptitude can relate to specific issues such as grade promotion, planning instruction, evaluating instruction or assessing progress.

While the area of language aptitude measurement is not of great concern to the teacher, certainly proficiency and achievement are. Proficiency measurements are aimed at general competency and serve global purposes of assessments. Those types of assessments are important in language development programs because learning English will occur outside the classroom. Occasional proficiency assessment will indicate what has been learned both inside and outside the classroom.

Achievement measurement is usually related to specific goals of instruction such as assessing the student's performance or the impact of instruction at the end of a section of work.

Proficiency and achievement assessment may overlap.

## Objectives of Assessment

The objective of assessment is to facilitate language development for educational and social purposes. In practical terms, assessment information can be used:

1. to help in the selection of appropriate programs and approaches
2. to provide placement information
3. to facilitate grouping
4. to provide continuity of the student's program within or between schools

However, in order to provide relevant assessment information, the teacher must have clear and specific instructional objectives. Whether the assessment is carried on through teacher observation or through more formalized testing, the more closely the assessment tools are related to the goals of instruction the more accurate and useful the assessment. Therefore, assessment procedures should keep the following aspects of the learning situation in mind:

1. the general and specific goals of the program
2. the entry level of the student
3. the knowledge, skills and processes needed to meet these goals
4. the mastery level of the student

(Bravi, Gerald. "Objectives in the Diagnostic Prescriptive Process." University of Manitoba Resource Teacher Program, Mimeograph. 1978.)

In addition teachers should also be aware of the students' need to have skills to handle social situations in everyday life and an awareness of the specific goals of instruction.

## What to Assess

The most difficult decision will be what to assess. Language usage is a multifaceted variable so that any given language act can be measured several ways. Furthermore, situational variables may greatly influence what type of language is produced. Given there is no singular definition of communicative or language competence to all, it is not surprising that there is no agreement on what to assess.

Without delving into extremely complex and controversial issues, it is safe to assume that the teacher must first be concerned with the language and cultural information needed to succeed in everyday social situations. Quite simply, then, the first level of assessment relates to the student's ability to use English to meet personal needs for social interaction. This includes ability to gain information to fulfill personal needs, give greetings, carry on a conversation in person or on the phone as well as the paralinguistic gestures and customs that accompany language.

The next general consideration should be whether or not the student understands the language of instruction, the formal directions and procedures relating to instruction in a subject area. In this case, assessment will relate to listening and speaking skills though reading should also be assessed.

The next level of language sophistication to be assessed should be the specific and technical language and skills of the various subject areas. Outlines for this type of information can be found in other departmental guides.

As much as possible, the assessment of the oral language proficiency described should be conducted in terms of the natural context in which it occurs. Language performance varies extensively from situation to situation so that testing a student's conversational ability by using a pencil and paper may have no bearing on actual student behaviour in a communication situation.

In order to evaluate the student's performance, the teacher must become a careful listener and observer of student language behaviour. Teachers may need to structure classroom events so that certain events occur or they may want to use simulations such as role-playing. It needs to be emphasized that paper and pencil tests, though easy to administer, are neither valid nor realiable indicators of oral language achievement. Sampling, recording and analyzing 200-300 words of student language taken in various social situations will provide the type of information needed to evaluate the student's language usage and/or progress.

There are several ways of analyzing a language sample to determine competence. While these approaches will be presented, it is imperative to realize that language is used in a holistic manner to meet the needs of the speaker. The ways of analyzing and categorizing language for assessment may provide some insight into what needs to be taught but still it is how the child uses language in the holistic sense that is important.

The student's language may be categorized into how he uses language (i.e. what functions he can perform using language) and what he knows about language (i.e. the structure of the language). This dichotomy recognizes that the student may appear to know things about the language but may not necessarily use all the things he knows. Knowledge about language can be analyzed into knowledge about syntax (grammar), morphology (word structures), phonology (sounds) and semantics (meaning). There may not be clear boundaries between these categories as the teacher attempts to identify what needs to be taught. However, the complex nature of language does not always allow simply classification to be made.

How To Assess

1. Usage: In order to assess how students use language to meet personal needs, the approach and the categories of usage suggested by Joan Tough*(1976) are helpful. She describes seven categories for how children use language to meet their needs. They are for self-maintaining, directing, reporting, logical reasoning, predicting, projecting and imagining. Table I explains the categories in more detail. Using this approach, the teacher would assess the child's ability to use language by observing the student's language in various situations and recording how the student uses language to meet personal needs.

TABLE I

| Classification of the Uses of Language | Examples Present/Past Experience |
|---|---|
| Self-maintaining | I want my milk now.<br>Watch me, watch what I can do. |
| Referring to physical and psychological needs and wants. | You're hurting me. Go away.<br>I told the teacher about you. |
| Protection of the self and of self interests. | I hit him because he spoiled my picture. |
| Justifying behaviour or claims. | I can have it 'cos I asked first. |
| Criticizing others. | I don't like your building, it's silly. |
| Threatening others. | If you don't give me that car I'll hit you. |
| Directing | Turning it round, the lorry's going round. |
| Monitoring own actions. | Turn it - it's hard - turn it a bit - a bit and take it off like that. Now the wheel - careful it should fit - a bit further round - that's it. |
| Directing the actions of the self. | |
| Directing the actions of others. | You take your lorry over there and put a load on it and then push it hard down this hill. |
| Collaborating in action with others. | You cut the paper and I'll stick it and we'll put it on there for an aeroplane. |

*Tough, Joan. Listening to Children Talking. London: Ward Lock Educational. 1976. pp. 82-85.

| | |
|---|---|
| Reporting | (Arising out of play situation.) |
| Labelling the components of the scene. | That's a car, there's a bus and that's a lorry. |
| Referring to detail (e.g. - size, colour and other attributes). | That little red bus has a little door at the back that opens. |
| Referring to incidents. | That boy's got some bricks, he's piling them up but Jim's knocking them down again. |
| Referring to the sequence of events. | He's put a load on and he's taking it over to the building and then it crashes. |
| Making comparisons. | |
| Recognizing related aspects. | |
| Making an analysis using several of features above. | This lorry is bigger than the red bus but it's the same colour. |
| Extracting or recognizing the central meaning. | When it goes fast it crashes so the bricks fall out. |
| Reflecting on the meaning of experiences, including own feelings. | There's three little lorries and two big ones but they won't all go in the garage, and that one's too big, it'll have to stay outside. |
| | We're pretending it's an accident. |
| | I like playing with lorries but I don't like that boy banging mine - he's spoiling it. |
| Towards logical reasoning | When you break your arm and they put something on it like a bandage and plaster, all over. |
| Explaining a process. | |
| Recognizing casual and dependent relationships. | If the bridge is low, boats can't go under and it will have to open in the middle to let them go through. |
| Recognizing problems and their solutions. | This box isn't big enough to make a garage so I'm going to make it with blocks. |

| | |
|---|---|
| Justifying judgments and actions. | I didn't want to go out because I hadn't finished my drawing. |
| Reflecting on events and drawing conclusions. | I don't think we'd better take the clock to pieces, we couldn't put it back again. |
| Recognizing principles. | I want a bike but I can't have one because it's too dangerous on our road. |
| **Predicting** | Beyond immediate situation: |
| Anticipating/forecasting | I'm going to paint a picture when I've finished my milk. |
| Anticipating the detail of actions and events. | I'm going to make some tarts with jam in, some red and some yellow ones. |
| Anticipating a sequence of events. | I'm going on a bus like that to see my Grandma after she comes out of hospital. |
| Anticipating problems and possible solutions. | That brick won't be long enough to go over the road, I'll go and find a piece of wood. |
| Anticipating and recognizing alternative courses of action. | We could make a bridge over with a box or we could have a long rope or get a ladder. |
| Predicting consequences of actions or events. | That propeller will fall off if you can't stick it on properly. |
| **Projecting** | He's driving fast in his car and it'll be all windy and cold and he hasn't got a coat on. |
| Projecting into the experiences of others. | I think he's frightened his mother will be cross. |
| Projecting into feelings of others. | |

| | |
|---|---|
| Projecting into situations never experienced. | He'll come and get all the bricks back if we take them.<br><br>That boy spilt all the red paint and he doesn't like cleaning it up.<br><br>I wouldn't like to be a rabbit living in that cage, would you? |
| Imagining | Many examples have been quoted above. |

2. Linguistic Complexity: Finocchiaro's*listing for pattern drills (1974) suggests a technique that will provide insight into the sophistication of the child's language development. Almost all students will be able to accomplish the lowest level of the hierarchy (i.e. repetition) while the fully functioning student will be able to communicate in the unstructured, comprehension category. Each successive category demands a more difficult linguistic operation. Following the task of repetition, the next level of difficulty is answering simple questions. These questions usually require a "yes/no" answer and a repetition of some part of the question. Substitution, the task following simple question-and-answer, requires the student to substitute some part of the sentence for an equivalent and meaningful alternative. Table 2 describes each of the categories.

TABLE 2

1. Repetition. Touch the object or picture or dramatize the drill.

| | |
|---|---|
| T.: It's a shoe. | S.: It's a shoe. |
| T.: I'm washing. | S.: I'm washing. |

2. Simple Question-and-Answer. Touch the object or picture. Notice the gradation from the simple to the more complex in these questions.

| | |
|---|---|
| T.: Is this a shoe? | S.: Yes, it's a shoe. |
| T.: Is this a shoe or a sock? | S.: It's a shoe. |
| T.: What's this? | S.: It's a shoe. |
| T.: Is this a shoe? | S.: No, it's not a shoe. It's a _____. |
| T.: Answer with "yes": Do you have a shoe? | S.: Yes, I have a shoe. |
| T.: Answer with "no": Do you have a cap? | S.: No, I don't have a cap. |

*Finocchiaro, Mary. English as a Second Language, From Theory to Practice, 2nd ed. New York: Regents, 1974.

3. Substitution. One word in the sentence is substituted for another word of the same class; i.e., a noun is replaced by a noun, a verb by a verb, an adjective by an adjective, etc. The base sentence given by the teacher is repeated several times by the children. Then the teacher or a group leader gives the oral cue to be substituted by one student. Remember that the oral cue should precede the visual cue, since in the oral cue the children are given the word to be inserted in the new sentence and thus not forced to recall sounds and concept at the same time.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| T.: | It's a shoe. (slight pause) | |
| T.: | Word cue: Baseball | S.: It's a baseball. |
| T.: | Object cue: Teacher or leader touches object. | S.: That's* a shoe. |
| T.: | Picture cue: Teacher or leader points. | S.: That's a bathing suit. |

4. Replacement. A word or expression is replaced in a sentence by another word of a difficult class; e.g., a noun is replaced by a pronoun. The replacement drill should be carefully graded. This is especially necessary when reading and writing are begun. See the sentences below. Note that the pronoun replaced by the noun occupies the same position in sentence a; the pronoun occupies a different place in sentence b; the pronoun occupies a different place in the sentence and brings about a change in the verb form (an accent mark the addition of a letter, etc.) in sentences c and d.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| a. | T.: | Mary has the shoe. | S.: She has the shoe. |
| b. | T.: | He bought the baseball. | S.: He bought it. (It precedes the verb in many foreign languages.) |
| c. | T.: | He bought the bathing suits. | S.: He bought them. |
| d. | T.: | Give Mary the book. | S.: Give it to her. |

5. Transformation. Sentences are changed from the affirmative to the negative or the interrogative, from singular to plural, from present to future, etc. Notice the procedure in changing from affirmative to negative and from singular to plural.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| T.: | I have pens. | S.: I have no pens. |
| T.: | I have a book. | S.: I have books. |

6. Progressive Replacement or Substitution. In the substitution and replacement drills the same single element in the slot was changed in each example; in this drill, words in different slots may be changed successively. Children are forced to remember the example which preceded and to make the change the new cue requires.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| T.: | He bought shoes last week. | S.: | He bought shoes last week. |
| T.: | He bought shoes yesterday. | S.: | He bought shoes yesterday. |
| | Mary bought shoes yesterday. | S.: | Mary bought shoes yesterday. |

7. Expansion. A word or expression is added to a base sentence in the position where it belongs. You may need to give many examples and repeat the same drill often, since the addition of a word may require other changes in the sentence.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| T.: | I get up at 8:00. | S.: | I always get up at 8:00. |
| T.: | He studies (French). | S.: | He's studying (French) now. |
| T.: | It's on the table. | S.: | I don't think it's on the table. |

8. Reduction. A sentence is reduced by changing an expression to a word.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| T.: | I have some pencils. | S.: | I have some. |
| T.: | Give me a few crayons. | S.: | Give me a few. |

9. Integration. Two short sentences are combined to make a longer, more normal sentence.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| T.: | I have a pencil. It's yellow. | S.: | I have a yellow pencil. |
| T.: | That dog is mine. It's under the table. | S.: | That dog under the table is mine. |

10. Directed Practice. This is done in three stages. In stage I, you or a group leader directs a child to ask a question of another child. You prompt his direct question. You direct the child to whom the question is addressed to answer the question. You prompt his answer, e.g.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| T.: | X ask Y "How old are you?" | S.: | How old are you? |
| T.: | Y, tell X "I'm eleven years old." | S.: | I'm eleven years old. |

In stage 2, you or a group leader directs a child to ask a question of another child, using an indirect question. You prompt the child who is to answer by whispering the direct question. He, of course, asks the direct question in a loud voice. You follow the same procedure in prompting the response, e.g.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| T.: | X, ask Y how old he is. Say (whispering) "How old are you?" | S.: | How old are you? |
| T.: | Y, tell X you're eleven years old. Say (whispering) "I'm eleven years old." | S.: | I'm eleven years old. |

In stage 3, you give the indirect question, but you do not prompt either the direct question or the response unless the children have difficulty.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| T.: | X, ask Y how old he is. | S.: | How old are you? |
| T.: | Y, tell X you're eleven years old. | S.: | I'm eleven years old. |

II. Translation. If you wish to make absolutely certain that the children know the equivalent expression in the foreign language, particularly if it contrasts sharply with English, or if you want a change of pace, you may wish -- only very occasionally -- to engage in translation, i.e., to give the equivalent of a limited structural item. You and you alone use English. The children then give the foreign language equivalent.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| T.: | I'm hungry. | S.: | _____ |
| T.: | Mary is hungry. | S.: | _____ |
| T.: | It's mine. | S.: | _____ |

3. Grammar: Teachers may wish to formally assess the students' knowledge of English grammar. The structure of words in English and the changes these words undergo in usage is morphology and the structure of the language in discourse is the grammar of the language. These may be taught separately but it is suggested that these be taught together so that a meaningful context for the words and structures can be established. The main categories for grammatical forms are nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, interjections and articles. Table 3 provides classifications. Teachers would observe and record samples of student speech to determine if students have command of specific grammatical forms.

TABLE 3

Partial Inventory of Grammatical Forms

Pronouns - Indefinite (it, no one, everyone, both, what, whatever)
Personal - First and Second Person (I, me, my, mine, you)
Third Person (he, she, her, hers)
Plural (we, they, their)
Demonstrative (those, that)
Reflexive (himself, herself)

Prepositions - (to, by, in, between, under, on, with)
Used in context with is, auxiliary verbs with is and -ing and -ed ending and main verbs.

Conjunctions - (and, but, or, because, if, before)

Articles - (the, a, an)

Adverbs - (fast, where, outside, how, down now)

Wh - Questions - (where, why, whose)

Nouns - (singular, plural)

Adjectives - (predicative, comparative, possessive)

Verbs - (auxiliary, regular, irregular, to be, tense, infinitives)

For a more extended inventory see CELI - Carrow Elicited Language Inventory. (Wallace, G., Larson, S., eds. Educational Assessment of Learning Problems, Allyn & Bacon, 1978. pp. 256-257)

4. Vocabulary: The semantic aspect of language is a combination of all the language elements in that it deals with the person's receptive and expressive understanding of language as it is expressed in diverse situations. In the assessment of syntax, one is interested in whether or not the student understands the functions of the various parts of speech. However, in the semantic aspect of language, the object is to determine if the student understands the implicit and explicit aspects of the statement given in a particular context. In the semantic area the teachers assess the student's ability to use language appropriately in different situations of everyday life. In this context, vocabulary development is important as it refers to both recognition and understanding of the concepts associated with the words in different situations. Lists and suggestions of important vocabulary areas are readily accessible in textbooks or other professional references. Table 4 presents a suitable starting point.

TABLE 4

Cultural Topics

Greetings and leave-takings at various hours of the day -- used with peers, members of the family, teachers, older persons
Expressions of courtesy -- used with peers, members of the family, teachers, strangers
Classroom routines -- attendance, lateness, dismissals, removing or putting on clothing, distributing or putting away material; requests by the teacher to deliver a message, go to the blackboard, stand, sit, put away materials, get clothing, etc.; preparation for the snack period or other class activities

Identification - Names of children

Words for father, mother, brother, sister, relatives
Names of immediate family members and relatives
Address; name of city, state, country
Age
Names of children sitting near by
Names of friends
Names of people in the school (principal, nurse, custodian, clerks, etc.)
Descriptions of people

The School

Classroom (things in it, the program, the activities)
People and their duties (librarian, nurse, doctor, principal, etc.)
Building and locations of special rooms (gymnasium, office, library, lunchroom, etc.)
Activities (plays and programs in the auditorium, trips, exhibits, graduation, parent participation, elections, parties, clubs, the newspaper)
Guidance activities such as choice or junior or senior high school and future career plans

The Home

Rooms and furnishings
Activities and related materials (cleaning, cooking, eating, dressing, studying, reading, listening to the radio, looking at television, receiving company, entertaining, fixing or making things)
Duties of various family members (cleaning, shopping)
Pets (names, care, play)
Hobbies
Toys
Indoor recreation

Food

Meals (breakfast, lunch, dinner or supper), time and names of meals, kinds of food served

It is desirable to be sensitive to your community in treating the food or any other topic. For example, do not extol a breakfast of orange juice, bacon and eggs, etc., if you are teaching in a community whose economy or culture would not make such a breakfast typical. Nothing prevents you, however, from teaching the names of foods and having them used in many different ways, e.g., "I don't like orange juice," "I never drink orange juice," "Mr. _____ prefers bacon and eggs."

Shopping (food stores and employees, cost of food, containers and packaging, weights, money)
Preparation
Recipes (typical dishes)
Table settings
Table manners and formulas of courtesy
Special holiday menus in the children's country and in the foreign country (e.g., New Year's Day)

Health

Parts of the body
Personal cleanliness (daily routines, prevention of illness)
Illness (names, symptoms, special foods, medicines)
Visits to doctor or dentist

Clothing

Names of garments (boys', girls', dolls', parents', babies')
Seasonal changes
Materials, colors, sizes
Care at home and outside (dry cleaning)
Shopping (money, likes and dislikes, packaging, department and neighborhood stores, mail order)

Other Topics

Names of boys and girls
The weather, the seasons, and the months
Numbers (cardinal and ordinal)
Time and dates
Money
Map study and directions
Plans for a trip to the country where the language is spoken
People of current or historical interest
Learnings from music, art, social studies, nature study, and any other curriculum area of interest to the children and within their ability to discuss
Recreation and holidays

Procedures

This handbook departs from traditional approaches by advocating criterion - referenced assessment procedures rather than standardized, norm-referenced tests.

Mercer*(1979) clearly demonstrates how the so-called "Anglo-conformity" model of assessment has discriminated against minority groups. Many standardized procedures still reflect middle-class values that are not appropriate to the multicultural nature of the school population. As long as standardized tests are widely used, students with limited skills in English may be inappropriately labeled as "slow," "mentally handicapped" and may be channeled into vocational or special programs and have limited accessibility to academic programs.

Criterion-referenced tests attempt to describe the student's achievement by comparing the student's performance to the domain of skills, concepts or generalizations to be learned. By contrast, norm-referenced tests compare a student's performance to the performance of other students.

Criterion-referenced tests can provide the most accurate information for the creation of individualized programs because the student's progress is described in absolute terms. This is especially useful in language development where the knowledge of a student's relative ranking is of little use in determining what needs to be taught next.

The techniques used to develop language competence will vary from situation to situation. A commercial standardized test will not necessarily reflect the information or approach taken and will not cover all the aspects of language taught. Criterion-referenced tests can be teacher-made and can be tailored to the approach the teacher is using. Criterion-referenced assessment also frees the teacher from the pencil-and-paper format.

Recent textbooks, including those suggested by the Department of Education for English as a Second Language Programs, are written with behavioural of or performance objectives in mind. Clear statements of instructional intent lend themselves to teacher-made protests and other assessments. Along with other materials like the Elementary ESL Resource Kit (available from the Department of Education), such materials lend themselves to determining what skills and processes must be mastered.

The following steps outline the process of setting up criterion-referenced procedures:

*Mercer, Jane. Technical Manual: Systems of Multipluralistic Assessment. Prentice Hall. 1979.

1. Determine the objectives of instruction.
2. Priorize the objectives in terms of importance and/or development.
3. Write clear performance objectives, indicating the conditions under which mastery will be demonstrated.
4. Write the items or describe the situation with which assessment will be done, remembering that the closer the testing or observing mirrors the experience the more accurate the assessment will be.
5. Analyze the results (after teaching) to determine if instruction has been successful.
6. Add or change original objectives and modify instruction.

Several commercially produced tests have a criterion-referenced aspect. Most notable of these tests are the Basic Inventory of Natural Language (BINL) and the Bilingual Syntax Measure (BSM). The Manual for the BINL describes the test as a complete criterion-referenced approach to assess language dominance, proficiency and language development. The test will help the teacher gather language samples to determine fluency, level of complexity and average sentence length. The suggestions for sampling and recording given in the manual reflect good language sampling techniques. Various pictures, chosen by the child, are used to elicit language samples. Three to five samples are suggested. Complete administration and scoring procedures are provided as well as an excellent overview of problems relating to language assessment. Prescriptive activities are suggested for areas in which the students score low. The BINL is a good assessment procedure for teachers with little or no experience in language development. No special training is needed for the BINL and a training program to administer the test can be purchased from the publishers.

The BSM is another language test that avoids the pitfalls of earlier language assessment tools. The BSM attempts to elicit natural language and though it has only seven plates, the authors claim the test can be used for diagnosis, placement and summative or formative evaluation. The test takes from ten to fifteen minutes to administer and teachers are advised to do some follow-up testing to check the results of a short test. The scores on the BSM can be categorized into levels from "survival" to "proficient."

The area of language assessment, and especially English as a Second Language assessment, is fraught with many difficulties. These problems are compounded when the teacher must deal with only one or a small number of ESL students. The preparation of teacher made assessments is a demanding and time-consuming process. However, there are rewards for the students of the teachers who can provide the appropriate assessment procedures.

Finally, teachers are reminded that ability in speaking a second language should not be considered as a reflection of a student's intelligence or potential.

# CHAPTER FIVE

## INFORMATION FOR ADMINISTRATORS

This section of the handbook contains:

1. guidelines for the placement and assessment of students of limited English proficiency,
2. a summary of program options for organizing and implementing language development programs for students of limited proficiency in English,
3. a description of the options for responding to cultural diversity in a community.

### Guidelines for the Placement of Students of Limited English Proficiency

Students of limited proficiency in English should be placed with their own age group. By placing children with their peers, the child's self-concept is not threatened and motivation is maximized as children of the same age have similar interests, share work experiences, share play skills and have a natural feeling for each other.

Once the initial placement has been made, the most suitable program should be selected. It is imperative at the earliest opportunity to assess the child's language and to gather other important information about the child's background. The student's health background should be documented, noting any health or sensory difficulties that might interfere with progress in language development. Adequate hearing, vision and energy are important to the child's success in language learning. The child's social and educational background should be determined as completely as possible. Awareness of the student's previous educational experiences helps the teacher to plan for instruction. Most standardized tests of language and reading ability are inappropriate for determining placement of low level fluency students. Alternate suggestions for language assessment are given in Chapter 4. Collecting the information suggested may prove difficult and may require the services of an interpreter, but it is an essential step in selecting an appropriate program for the student.

### Program Options

The four administrative models described in the following table can be used as guidelines in establishing programs for students of limited proficiency in English. Each model has advantages and disadvantages. Taking what is best from each model as determined by the needs of the individual student, the attitudes of the peer group, the skills of the staff and available resources, administrators can devise their own

combinations. The advantages of each model should be utilized to overcome the disadvantages in order to generate a positive language learning climate.

Further information concerning the organization of programs can be found in:

Ashworth, Mary. Immigrant Children and Canadian Schools. Toronto: McClelland & Stewart, 1975.

Handscombe, Jean. "Models of English as a Second Language Programme Organization", English Quarterly, XI, No. 2 (1978), 115-124.

PROGRAM OPTIONS

| NAME OF PROGRAM | DESCRIPTION OF PROGRAM | ADVANTAGES | DISADVANTAGES |
|---|---|---|---|
| SEGREGATION | Involves setting up a special class for special needs groups. | 1. Specially trained teacher. | 1. Unless some degree of integration takes place, the students' only model is their English teacher. |
| | | 2. Unity of purpose provides group cohesiveness regardless of ethnic origin. | 2. Students may later experience difficulty in adjusting to other programs. |
| | | 3. Class size is kept small, ideally 12-15. | 3. The advantages may become disadvantages if the ESL program becomes too specialized and teacher directed. |
| | | 4. A totally specialized program. | |
| | | 5. Instructional level geared to the students' needs. | |

PROGRAM OPTIONS (Continued)

| NAME OF PROGRAM | DESCRIPTION OF PROGRAM | ADVANTAGES | DISADVANTAGES |
|---|---|---|---|
| WITHDRAWAL | | | |
| 1. Where number of students is sufficient to hire a full or part time ESL teacher. | Involves students being timetabled for both specialized and regular programs. The degree of involvement in each area and with the ESL teacher may be as follows: | Gives students the opportunity to capitalize on the best features of specialized regular class instruction. | Ideally no disadvantages but close cooperation between ESL and regular class teachers is required. |
| | a. In specialized program with one or more regular subjects. | 1. Provides students with varied language models. | 1. Coordination between ESL class and the rest of the school experience may be lacking. |
| | b. Half time in specialized and half time in regular programs. | 2. Provides opportunities for both challenge and success. | 2. There may be a lack of consistency in the expectations in the two areas. |
| | c. In a regular program, but withdrawn for one or more periods for specialized instructions. | 3. Eases transition between specialized and regular programs. | 3. Students may feel language learning takes place only in the ESL class. |

PROGRAM OPTIONS (Continued)

| NAME OF PROGRAM | DESCRIPTION OF PROGRAM | ADVANTAGES | DISADVANTAGES |
|---|---|---|---|
| 2. Where number of students is not sufficient to hire a full time ESL teacher. | Involves resource teacher working with: | | |
| | a. Classroom teachers | 1. Can effect a long term improvement in the skill of all staff. | 1. Works best where staff see the need for developing these skills and where staff remains a unit for some time. |
| | | 2. Can assist with assessment, placement, and integration of students in regular programs. | 2. Provides little satisfaction for teachers who prefer working with students. |
| | b. ESL students | 1. Can work intensively with small groups of students with similar language problems. | 3. May have very limited time for each group of students (e.g., twice a cycle). |
| | | 2. Can evaluate and adjust programs through direct contact with students. | |
| 3. Where several schools share services of one teacher. | Involves itinerant teacher working with students in different schools. | Can serve several schools with specialized instructions where otherwise none would be available. | Time spent in travel between schools may minimize time spent with students. |

PROGRAM OPTIONS (Continued)

| NAME OF PROGRAM | DESCRIPTION OF PROGRAM | ADVANTAGES | DISADVANTAGES |
|---|---|---|---|
| TOTAL IMMERSION | Involves placing a student in a regular class in anticipation that the student will acquire the language. | 1. Provides maximum exposure to natural language use.<br>2. Student is surrounded by English speaking models. | 1. Depends heavily on the attitude of the student, teacher, class and community.<br>2. Exerts considerable pressure on the student to keep up with the task.<br>3. Places great demands on the student and teacher.<br>4. Sometimes students are overwhelmed by the total immersion situation. |
| BILINGUAL EDUCATION | Involves the use of students' native language(s) initially, with a second language introduced gradually with fluency as the goal. There are two programs:<br>1. The use of the native language only during the period of transition, eventually expecting the students to complete their education in the target language.<br>2. Maintenance and development of the two languages simultaneously. | 1. Ensures students' comprehension of material via the native language.<br>2. Native language material allows students to continue their studies while acquiring the target language.<br>3. Involvement of the community as resources to the program. | 1. Initial costs could be high.<br>2. Possible segregation of different language groups. |

## APPROACHES TO MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION

Multicultural education attempts to address the needs of all children in a culturally diverse society. Literature in this area identifies four major organizational approaches to multicultural education. A brief description of the four approaches follows.

Education of the Culturally Different. Children from minority groups often have unusually high drop out rates, low academic achievement and limited prospects for employment. A frequently cited cause is discordance between the culture and language of the home and that of the school. In order to equalize the opportunities for success for students from minority groups, schools initiate action to minimize the discordance by:

1. conducting cultural awareness sessions for staff,
2. sensitizing staff to the needs of students from specific minority groups,
3. preparing learning materials for specific cultural groups,
4. hiring ethnic aides and liaison personnel and setting up special classes (ESL, heritage language, religion, and transition classes).

The strategy of the school is to recognize and accommodate cultural diversity as a means of promoting success in the mainstream of the school as quickly as possible.

Education for Cultural Understanding. The goal in this approach is to educate all children about the value of ethnic and cultural diversity. By involving all children in learning about cultural issues like ethnicity, culture, race, prejudice, etc., intergroup understanding will be fostered.

Schools following this approach would initiate action leading to a general knowledge about cultural differences for all students by:

1. rejecting curriculum materials based only on the dominant group in society,
2. accepting curricula that reflect the mosaic of society and community,
3. encouraging projects on the study of cultural and ethnic groups in the community,
4. encouraging projects on the study of personal history,
5. providing tangible recognition in school for ethnic and cultural groups,
6. conducting in-services to sensitize staff to ethnic diversity and to identify resources in the ethnic communities which could serve the school.

The strategy of the school is to recognize cultural pluralism as an educational resource to reduce the negative forces of prejudice and discrimination and as a way of helping children of minority ethnic groups through the process of adapting to the dominant group. The goal is for the child to achieve success in the mainstream of the school.

Education for Cultural Pluralism. This approach assumes that cultural pluralism is a positive force in society and stresses the importance of maintaining language and culture from one generation to the next. The major challenge to cultural pluralism is the force of assimilation as represented by the dominant cultural/linguistic group. The school's responsibility can be seen as minimizing the force of assimilation on children and as assisting minority groups to maintain themselves as viable groups with officially recognized supporting institutions.

Schools following this approach would initiate educational programming that:

1. reflects the views and values of minority ethnic groups,
2. has cultural retention classes,
3. has mother tongue instruction,
4. has teachers who come from minority ethnic groups represented in the student population,
5. emphasizes and rewards student achievement and success within the group as being a valid contribution to society as a whole.

The main strategy of this approach is to provide equality of opportunities for student achievement and success at school through participation in a viable cultural group. The desire for cultural pluralism has led to the establishment of separate schools in some parts of the country and aid to private schools in other areas.

Bicultural Education. This approach stresses achievement in one's first allegiance group and deep understanding of another cultural group. This deeper understanding is achieved through an immersion in the language and institutions of another group. Schools implement bicultural education programs through bilingual or immersion schools and to some extent by student exchange programs.

The Manitoba Schools Act allows for the implementation of any of the four approaches described above or combination of these. The important goal of educating children to gain understanding and appreciation of self and others is stressed in each of the four approaches.

For further elaboration of the four approaches described here, see:

Gibson, Margaret A. "Approaches to Multicultural Education in the United States: Some Concepts and Assumptions," Anthropology and Education Quarterly, Vol. 7, No. 4 (Nov., 1976), 7-18.

# CHAPTER SIX

## ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES

### Bookmaking

Bookmaking is a worthwhile and interesting language development activity for students at all levels of language competence. Student-made books may take a variety of forms; scrap books, story books, picture books, and may be the result of individual or group efforts. Individual students at low levels of fluency may compile scrap books on various topics, picture dictionaries, or they may draw or assemble a picture story. These books may then become the basis for oral language activities conducted by a teacher, volunteer or student helper. More advanced students may write and illustrate original stories in booklet form. Students at different levels of language competence may collaborate to produce a theme book or story book. The more advanced students could contribute the text and the others the illustrations. Collections of student writing, illustrated and bound can also be produced.

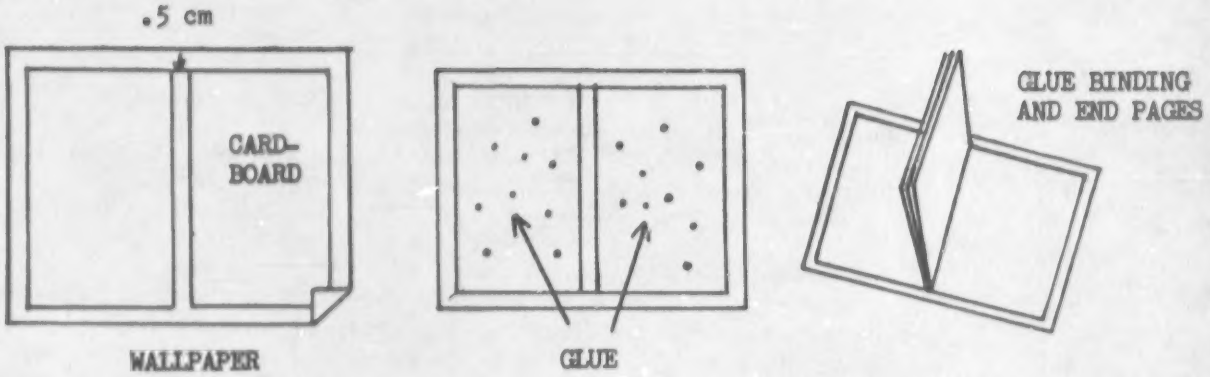
Before student books are sent home, they can be a valuable addition to the classroom library. Students enjoy sharing their work, and knowing that their work will be seen by others gives purpose and motivation to the task at hand.

Books can be made by simply stapling or sewing pages together and covering the spine with masking tape. Attractive hard cover books can be easily made using the following technique:

1. Place a large piece of wallpaper or mactac face down. Paste two pieces of cardboard on the paper about 0.5 cm. apart leaving about a 2.5 cm. border all around.

2. Fold each corner of the wallpaper from the corner points to form a triangle; paste down. Fold flaps onto the cardboard and paste.

3. Use a large needle and strong thread to sew a running stitch down the centre of several sheets of plain paper. Fold along the stitched line and glue to the 0.5 cm. space between the two pieces of cardboard. Paste the first and last sheets onto the cardboard to make the inside covers.




More suggestions for bookbinding and some good ideas for making books may be found in Chapter 3 of An Experience-Based Approach to Language and Reading, edited by Carl Braun and Victor Froese (Baltimore, Maryland: University Park Press, 1977).

## Brainstorming

Brainstorming is a valuable technique for building upon the language and the experiences that children bring to the classroom. Brainstorming involves eliciting language from the children.

The activity may begin from a familiar sentence pattern or a line from a story, song or poem. Children are asked to suggest other words (or phrases) that may be substituted in, or added to the sentence. The teacher may suggest a category, e.g., animals, food, etc. and the students may suggest items belonging to that category.

Language elicited from the students should be recorded on the chalkboard by the teacher or a student recorder. Care should be taken to ensure that all students know the meanings of the words volunteered by their classmates. As the activity proceeds, it may be necessary for the teacher to provide words and structures which express the students' thoughts.

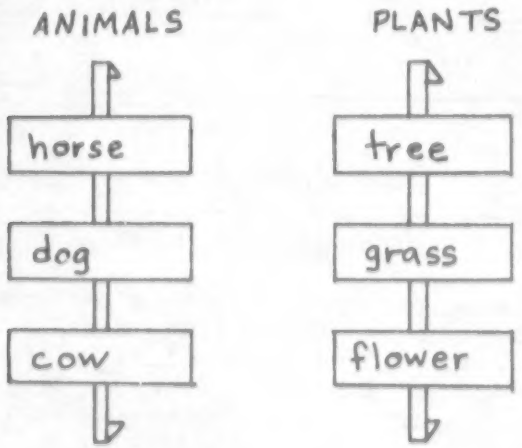
Once the brainstorming activity is completed, the words or sentences on the chalkboard should be edited for correctness of form and appropriateness of responses. The edited list should then be copied onto word cards. Copying may be done by the teacher with students dictating the spelling or by students themselves. Depending upon the language level of the students, pictures may be drawn or pasted on the cards.

These word cards may be used in a variety of activities such as:

1. Word Recognition. Words may be used as flashcards for reading practice or in word/picture matching activities.

2. Categorizing. Once the students are able to read the words on the cards, they can be encouraged to perceive the logical relationships between the words, the phonetic similarities (initial/final consonant, vowel sound) or grammatical functions (noun, verb, adjective, etc.) of the words, and to sort the words accordingly.

   A convenient and enjoyable sorting technique involves the use of word strings. The cards to be used are distributed equally amongst the students. For each category, a strip of masking tape, sticky side out is suspended on the blackboard. Students can then come forward and attach their words to the appropriate strings. Word strings should be displayed in the classroom for student reference.




   a. Students can create original stories and poems by substituting words obtained through brainstorming within the framework of a model poem or story.

      e.g. One, two _____ One, two
      Buckle my shoe Shine my shoe

   b. Words suggested as substitutions in a sentence can be used in the composition of new sentences. With more advanced students, word strings can be arranged in sentence sequence (noun - verb, noun - verb - noun, etc.) to help in the composition of new sentences.

Once a unit of work has been completed, word cards can be filed in small boxes, pocket charts or on metal rings. Students may then use the familiar words for future reference.

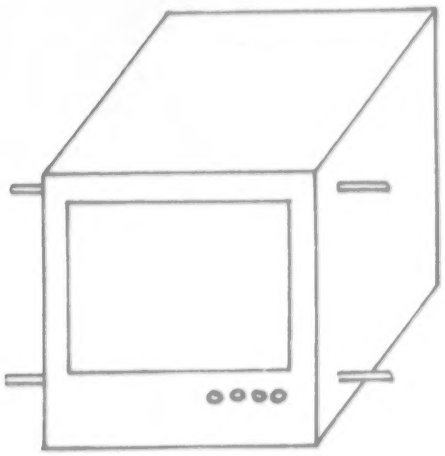
Box T.V. (Roller Movie)

Constructing a box T.V. is an interesting follow-up to a story unit, a field trip or the like. The T.V. programme is produced by having the students draw a series of pictures to illustrate the story or event. These pictures are attached, side by side or top to bottom, and rolled on a piece of dowelling, broom handle or mailing tube, picture side out.

The T.V. set is made from a cardboard box with one side cut out to resemble a T.V. screen. The piece of dowelling with the pictures is inserted either along the left hand side or across the bottom or the top of the box and an empty piece of dowelling is placed on the side opposite of it. The free end of the programme is attached to the empty roller. The programme is played by rolling the series of pictures from one roller to the other.

Language can be added in the following ways:

1. Print captions under each picture.
2. Use comic strip type bubbles within each picture.
3. Prepare a script that is to be read while the programme is being shown.
4. Tape the prepared commentary for play along with the programme.



BOX T.V.

## Chalkboard Stories

Chalkboard stories are a variation on the story-telling technique. The story-teller actually draws the story while telling it. Familiarity with the story is essential and the illustrations, however simple, should be planned in advance. Stories with simple plots and few characters lend themselves to this approach and cumulative stories, such as "I Know an Old Lady" or "Old MacDonald Had a Farm" are particularly suitable. Drawings can be labelled as the story progresses and any repetitive parts of the story can be written on the chalkboard. This technique can also be used with large sheets of paper and felt markers or the overhead projector.

## Chants

Chants are very useful in helping children to develop a feeling for the flow and rhythm of the language. They can provide, in an enjoyable way, the large amount of practice and repetition that learners need to become comfortable with specific structures and vocabulary. They also allow for full student participation and involvement in a comfortable atmosphere. Chants may be used to promote fluency in reading and to enhance creativity. To be effective, chants must be presented enthusiastically and with a strong beat.

The following general suggestions may be useful when using chants:

1. Introduce the important vocabulary and structures contained in the chant so that the meaning will become clear to the children. Use real objects, pictures, puppets, mime, dramatization, demonstration, etc.

2. Present the chant to the children and give them plenty of opportunity for repetition in large and small group situations.

3. Let the children listen to a taped version of the chant and repeat after it or along with it.

4. When the children are confident, record their rendering of the chant right after the original.

5. If they are at the reading stage, show the children the printed form of the chant as soon as they are comfortable saying it. This provides the opportunity to promote fluency in reading as well as to develop and reinforce specific reading skills.

6. Leave the tape in the listening centre and have the printed form of the chant displayed prominently for the use of individuals or groups.

7. Various writing/reading activities are possible as a follow-up to the learning of the chant. Modified cloze exercises could be used to develop an understanding of syntax as well as to help with word recognition and spelling. Children may be encouraged to substitute first single words, then phrases, and later whole sentences, to create their own versions of the chant. Each child should make or receive a pictorial or printed version of the chant.

The following books are good sources of chants for classroom use. However, original chants may be devised by the teacher for specific purposes or jump rope rhymes and children's prose and poetry that are of interest to the learners could be used.

Callum, A. Aesop in the Afternoon. New York: Citation, 1972.

De Regniers, B. S. Something Special. New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1958.

Graham, C. Jazz Chants for Children. New York: Oxford University Press, 1979 (cassette tape available).

Ireson, B. One-Eyed Jack and Other Rhymes. New York: Groset Dunlap.

Lee, D. Alligator Pie. Toronto: Macmillan, 1974.

Martin, B., Jr. and Brogan, Peggy. Instant Readers. Toronto: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1972 (cassette tapes available).

_____. Sounds of Language Series. Toronto: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1972-1974.

Silverstein, S. Where the Sidewalk Ends. New York: Harper & Row, 1974.

Withers, C. A Rocket in my Pocket. Toronto: Scholastic Book Services, 1967.

Finger Plays

Children's finger plays can be used in the classroom for enjoyment and relaxation. At the same time, vocabulary and language structures are reinforced through action.

Before the introduction of the finger play, the meaning of important concepts and vocabulary should be established. The children should have several opportunities to hear the finger play and observe the actions. The children join in as they acquire confidence with the language and actions. If the children experience difficulties with

either the language or the actions or both, the finger play may have to be broken down into smaller steps.

Finger plays and singing games may be found on pages 65-72 of Early Childhood: A Time For Learning, A Time For Joy, (Manitoba Department of Education, 1979).

## Listening Skills

A variety of techniques can be used to improve auditory discrimination and practice oral language at the same time.

1. Tape familiar sounds in the home or in the school. Have children identify the sounds and/or tell where they can be heard. Practice language structures such as: "What's that?" "It's a _____." "Where can you hear _____?" "In/on/at the _____."

2. Tape-record students from the classroom, and teachers from the school. Ask children to identify the speakers. They may also be asked to try to recall what the different speakers said.
   "Who is it?" "It's _____."
   "What did _____ say?"

3. Play a tape recorded passage and ask the students to raise their hands everytime they hear a particular sound, e.g., ch, sh.

4. Place in front of the class two objects that start with the sound to be practiced, e.g., vase, book.

   Have a series of pictures or objects that begin with the two sounds. Have the students name the pictures or objects and place them beside the object beginning with the same sound.

## Making the Most of Every Moment

Language development activities are not limited to formal lessons in the language arts or content areas. With a little ingenuity, almost every moment of the school day can provide a context for meaningful language practice. For example:

Roll call can be used to practice any number of things from categorization (everyone answer with the name of an animal, food, etc.) to phonics (everyone answer with a word that begins with same sound as your name).

Distribution of books and papers, etc. can provide an opportunity to practice possessives, e.g., "Whose book is this?" "It's _____'s book."

School Bells provide opportunities to practice telling time, prepositions, description of daily routine, verb tenses, e.g.,
"What time is it?"
"Where's the big hand? . . . little hand?"
"What's it time for?"
"What are you going to do now?"

Label objects in the classroom, even the most common ones: desk, chair, blackboard, etc. Remove the labels from time to time and have the students replace them.

Stop the students from time to time and ask
"What are you doing?"
"Do you _____ every day?"
"Did you _____ yesterday?"
"Are you going to _____ tomorrow?"

Exercise breaks can be used to practice the names of body parts, prepositions, actions, etc. Let the students take turns giving directions such as: "Put your hands on your head." "Put your hands behind your back." "Touch your toes."

Children's games such as "Simon Says," "Mother May I," "Red Rover," "Seven Up" can be adapted to give emphasis to certain language structures. These games not only provide language practice but introduce playground culture as well.

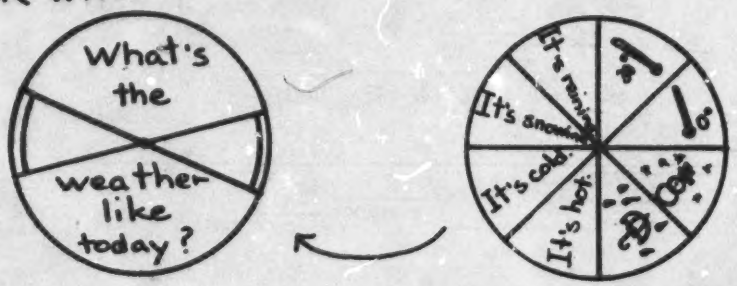
Lining up can provide opportunities to sing a song, recite a poem, or to practice the prepositions "in front of," "behind," "between," and terms such as "first," "last," "second last," etc.

Lining up can be the occasion for a simple game to practice cardinal and ordinal numbers. Shortly before the end of the class distribute numbered cards in random order to all members of the class. Instruct the students to line up in numerical order. When the students are lined up, check the order by having them number off, e.g., 1 . . 2 . . 3 . . Ask questions about the line, e.g., "Who's first?" "Who's second?" "Who's tenth?", etc. As the students leave the room, they return the cards saying "I'm first," "I'm second," . . . "I'm last."

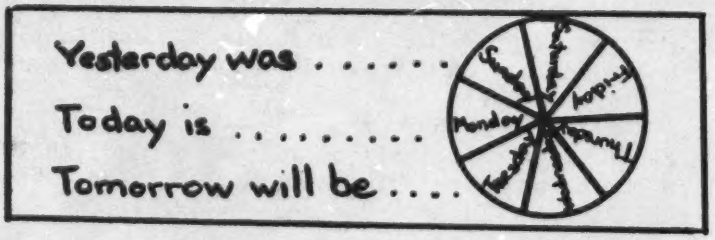
Depending on the size of the group, the same activity can be done using days of the week, months of the year, or letters of the alphabet.

Change the calendar daily. Make a calendar that requires changing every day. Make a calendar wheel or a weather wheel. Set aside five minutes every morning to practice day, date and common expressions to describe the weather. Use this time as an opportunity to practice verb tenses and time expressions such as "yesterday," "tomorrow," "day after tomorrow," etc.

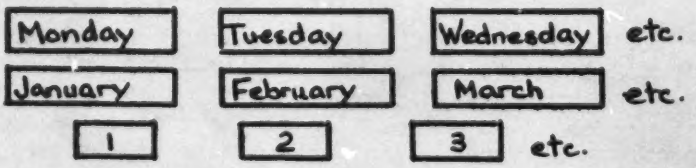
WEATHER WHEEL




CALENDAR WHEEL




DAILY CALENDAR



Puppets

The creation and use of puppets requires concentration, imagination, the ability to project into the feelings of others, creativity and physical dexterity. For shy, unsure children, a puppet can become a non-threatening friend through whom he can speak with no fear of ridicule. Puppets can be used in a variety of subject areas and by students of all ages.

Puppets can be constructed in many ways. They can be as simple as a cut-out face or figure glued to a popsicle stick or as complex as a marionette. Some puppets require special materials, but many others can be made from recycled items such as pieces of cloth and wool, plastic containers, buttons, toilet paper rolls, etc.

The construction phase provides opportunities to teach and practice vocabulary associated with the things being used and made (e.g., glue, scissors, eyes) and also with the qualities of the materials being used. It also creates an interesting relaxed situation in which to use a variety of different kinds of language, e.g., reporting, (What are you making now?), explaining (Why are you using tape instead of glue?), and reasoning (How will you attach the eyes?).

The use of puppets is most successful if children are provided with a clearly defined framework. Following are some suggestions:

1. The students can take turns telling how and of what they made their puppets.
2. The children can ask each puppet, in turn, questions like, "What is your name?" "What is your favourite food?", etc. The child answering must take on the character type suggested by the appearance of the puppet and answer appropriately.
3. While one child or a group reads a story or poem, other children act it out with their puppets.
4. The children write a puppet play from a known story and act it out.
5. Give a one-sentence instruction card to each child and have the puppet act it out, e.g., Look for something you lost; find it; go away with it.
6. The children can listen to a record, move their puppets to it and tell why they moved them in that way.
7. If students are asked to improvise a conversation or sketch, set the situation and brainstorm for some ideas as to what might happen. The students then choose one of the ideas and follow it through.

If any of the activities are to be performed before an audience, it is advisable to choose one that is either much older or much younger than the performers in order to avoid peer pressure.

Other ideas for the use and construction of puppets can be found in:

North York Board of Education: Puppets Go To School With Charlotte.

Copies available from: Department of Communities and
Continuing Education
North York Board of Education
5050 Yonge Street
Willowdale, Ontario
M2N 5N8

## Role Playing

Role playing is a flexible activity with many different applications to the language learning situations. Role playing is an activity that requires students to use language appropriate to situations which might occur in real life or which they have read about.

The task of the student is to choose the appropriate language and content for the situations and to be aware of the cultural aspects of the situations, e.g., social conventions and non-verbal behaviours. Role playing develops social skills and self-confidence by allowing the student to experience a real-life event without the risk of personal failure.

Suggested procedure for role-playing:

1. Review the role of each speaker in the situation, e.g., adult, child, parent, animal, friend, etc.
2. Depending on the language level of the students, the role playing situation may be highly structured, e.g., the students may be given a script to follow, or relatively unstructured, e.g., given a situation the students may be required to improvise the dialogue.
3. Provide sufficient background experiences and information so that students understand the situation and the nature of their roles.
4. Give the students time to perform the role play giving assistance where necessary.
5. Discuss the experience with all members of the group.

## Using Catalogues, Magazines, . . .

Pictures cut from magazines and catalogues are an unlimited source of language development activities. They can be used for:

1. Picture File. A picture file can be made cheaply and easily by mounting pictures on cards of uniform size, laminating them and

organizing them into sets. Pictures can be organized into sets by categories (school, home, animals, clothing, toys, actions, food, etc.), use (story starters, conversation situations, etc.) or by stories. Pictures can be labelled, either on the back or on a separate card for matching, identification, etc. Metal rings can be used to keep each set of pictures together.

2. Story Situations. Ask children to choose a picture they would like to talk about. Have them practice their story with a buddy and then let them tell it to their group, or their class, or have them tape it for use at a listening post. The story can be written down by the student, or written by the teacher and copied by the student. The picture and the story can be mounted on construction paper and placed in the listening centre with the tape. Stories may be assembled into booklet form and added to the classroom library.

3. Categorization. Have children make a "Wish Book." Children are asked to cut out pictures of things they would like to have from a catalogue. They can then sort their pictures into categories (toys, games, furniture, clothing, etc.), and paste them on separate sheets of paper and assemble the pages into booklet form.

Children can also be given magazines and asked to find pictures related to a specific topic, e.g., food, animals.

Word Bags

The use of word bags is a beginning reading technique based on the assumption that children find it easier to recall words that have intense personal meaning to them. Students are given the opportunities to identify a word or words they would like to know. The teacher prints these words on a file card (5" x 8"). The students then illustrate their words by drawing or pasting a picture on the back of the card. The picture clues help the students remember the words. The students can recopy the new word by tracing it in sand or salt, printing it on paper or on a chalkboard, or modelling it with plasticine. They may also share the words with one another.

Each child's words are stored in a personal "word bag" -- a cloth shoe bag, a large envelope, a small box. Each student can make his own word bag as a project. From time to time, students are tested for recognition of their words. Words not remembered are removed from the children's collections.

When the children have accumulated enough words, they should be encouraged to make simple sentences. Function words and punctuation

marks should be introduced at this time. The students can then read and recopy their original sentences.

The word bag method lends itself to theme teaching and the introduction of new grammatical structures. Other activities that the word cards could be used for are:

1. classification

    a. initial consonants
    b. final consonants
    c. parts of speech
    d. animals, food, colors, etc.

2. alphabetical order

3. sentence structure

    a. declarative sentences
    b. interrogative sentences
    c. negative sentences

Further information can be found in:

Veatch, J. et al. Key Words to Reading: The Language Experience Begins. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1973.

# GAMES

Games provide a change of pace in the classroom routine and a valuable opportunity for language practice in a meaningful context. Games used for language development purposes should be sufficiently challenging intellectually in order to maintain the interest of the players and to help them develop their thinking skills. They should also provide many opportunities for the use of oral language. The teacher or helper should identify in advance the vocabulary and language structures which can be practiced through the game, repeat them often during the game and encourage the children to do so as well.

The games provided here can be used with students of all ages and at all levels of language competence once a topic or unit of work has been introduced. They are intended to provide an enjoyable format for practicing the vocabulary and syntax associated with many different themes. It is suggested that teachers prepare sets of word and picture cards to accompany each unit of work for use in games. Once students have become familiar with the games, they may be placed in an activity centre along with the word and picture cards for independent use.

## It's in the Bag

Objective: To practice the names of various objects

Number of Players: Whole class

Materials: Several small objects (scissors, eraser, etc.)

Procedure: Give the name of each object as it is placed in a paper bag. Then, taking one object in your hand ask, "What's in my hand?" Children try to guess by naming the objects they have seen previously and using a question frame.
e.g., "Is it an eraser?" "Yes, it is."
"No, it isn't."

### Variation

Students may take turns leading the game.

## Kim's Game

Objectives: To increase memory span
To review vocabulary
To practice specific sentence patterns

Number of Players: Whole class

Materials: A variety of small objects or pictures of objects, a piece of cloth

Procedure: Place a number of familiar objects or pictures of objects on a flat surface in full view of all students. Have students use specific sentence patterns to say what they see:
e.g., There's _____, _____, and an _____ on the tray.
Cover the objects/pictures with a cloth. Have students try to recall what is under the cloth. List the words on the chalkboard.

Variations

1. Cover several objects/pictures after students have looked at them and remove one or more of the objects/pictures. Uncover the objects and have students say or write which ones are missing. Encourage the use of sentence patterns such as:
   You removed/took away the _____.
   The _____ and the _____ are missing.
   There were (#) _____ but now there is only one.
   NOTE: Pictures/objects may be added instead of removed.

2. Play the game on the overhead using cut-outs of various shapes -- animals, vehicles, etc.

3. With the help of the students, write familiar words or phrases on the overhead. Review the words, switch off the overhead and have them say or write as many as they can remember.

4. Write a limited number of words or phrases on the overhead. Review them, switch off the overhead, make some changes in the words/phrases, e.g., change number, tense, etc. Switch on the overhead and have students identify and say or write the words that were changed and what the original form was.
   e.g., The second word was mouse and now it's mice.

One Better

Objectives: To develop listening skills
To develop attention and concentration skills
To review vocabulary
To classify known vocabulary
To provide opportunities for oral language practice

Number of Players: 6 - 10

Materials: None

Procedure: A teacher or volunteer leader makes the statement of the type:
I went to _____ and saw _____.
The first player repeats after the leader and adds an object of his own to be ONE BETTER. The next player repeats what previous player has said and adds something of his own. Continue until everyone has had a turn. Any player who fails to complete the list or who cannot add an object is "out".

Start a new round with the remaining players. This time each person adds two things to the list. Continue until all have dropped out but the winner.

Variations

The categories of objects used may be those found in:

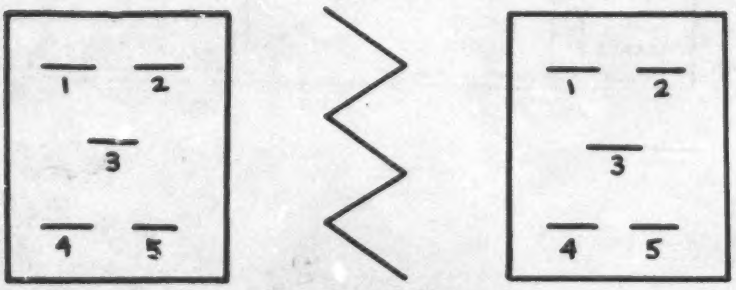
a zoo
a hardware store
a sporting goods store
a fruit market
a department store
a supermarket
etc.

Put

Objectives: To practice giving and receiving oral directions
To practice vocabulary and prepositions

Number of Players: 2 (1 fluent English and 1 or 2 non-fluent) and a helper

Materials: 2 identical gameboards
2 identical sets of objects or pictures (5 in a set)
screen (folded manila tag)



Procedure: Be sure that the players know the names of all the objects or pictures to be used in the game. Players sit face to face, each with his own set of objects or pictures and gameboard. The screen is placed between them.

One player tells the other where to place his objects on the gameboard, placing his own as he does so:
e.g., Put the cow on line 1.
Put the pig under line 2.

When all the objects have been placed on the gameboard, the screen is removed and the players compare gameboards. Players then reverse roles.

Variations

1. Students at low levels of fluency may begin by sitting side by side to play the game. More advanced students may sit back to back.

2. The game may be played without a gameboard using a farm set or Lego set.

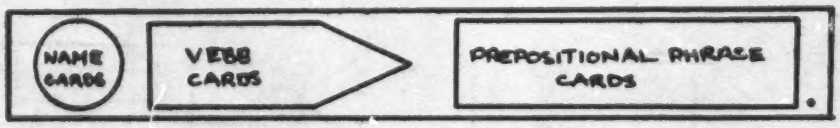
3. One player can assemble his board before the game begins. The other player must get the information to complete his board by asking questions:
e.g., "Where's the pig?" "It's on line 1."
"Is the pig on line 4?" "No, it's not."

Sentence Makers

Objectives: To practice reading familiar names, verbs, prepositional phrases
To develop an understanding of basic sentence structure
To develop reading comprehension skills

Number of Players: 2 - 6 and teacher or helper

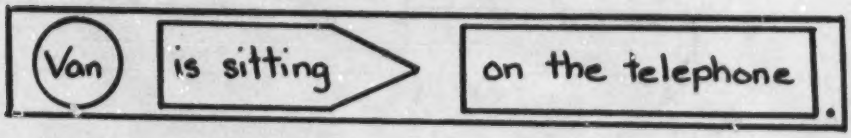
Materials: One gameboard



*1 set of name cards
1 set of arrow-shaped verb cards, past and present tenses
1 set of rectangular prepositional phrase cards

*Cards may be illustrated, depending on the level of the students.

Procedure: Name cards are placed face up on the table. Verb and prepositional phrase cards are placed face down. Each player in turn finds his own name card and places it, face up, on the circle on the gameboard. He then selects a verb card and a prepositional phrase card and places them on the board to make a sentence, e.g.




The teacher or helper may help to read a sentence. Players should then discuss the sentence and its meaning. The teacher may lead the discussion, e.g.
"Could Van sit on the telephone?"
"What should Van sit on?"
"What should Van do on the telephone?"
"What would happen if Van sat on the telephone?"

The next player then puts his name on the pile and makes a new sentence by adding a new verb card, prepositional phrase card, or both.

To add an element of competition, points may be awarded for logical sentences.

Variation

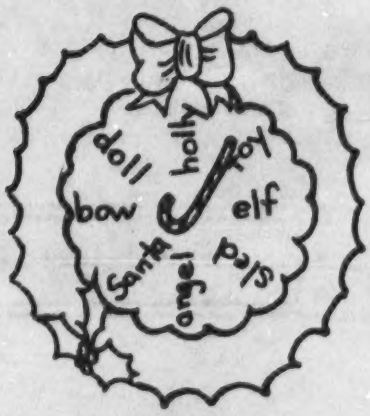
Children working individually may use the cards to make as many good sentences as possible about themselves or other members of the class.

Spin the Cane

Objective: To practice Christmas vocabulary

Number of Players: As many as are involved in the learning of the Christmas unit. If more than 5 players are involved, the students are divided into 2 teams.

Materials: 24 different Christmas picture cards. 3 different wheels in the form of a Christmas wreath. The first wheel has 12 simple words. The second wheel has 12 more difficult words. The third has all 24 words included.




Vocabulary for Picture Cards

| | |
|---|---|
| Christmas card | presents |
| candy cane | stocking |
| Christmas cake | Santa Claus |
| elf | ribbon |
| bow | reindeer |
| bell | ornaments |
| star | angel |
| sled | candy |
| candle | cookies |
| doll | chimney |
| Christmas tree | wreath |
| holly | fireplace |

Procedure:

1. Picture cards are attached to chalkboard with masking tape.
2. The first player proceeds to Christmas wreath, spins the candy cane on the wreath, and then proceeds to picture cards.
3. When the cane points to the candle, the teacher would ask the question "Where is the candle?"
4. The student points to the correct picture card and answers with an appropriate sentence, such as "Here is the candle."
5. If the student points to the correct picture card and makes the appropriate response, a point is obtained for the team. Play then proceeds to the first player on the next team.
6. If the student does not point to the correct card, or makes an incorrect response, the teacher repeats the question for the first player on the opposing team who then gets the opportunity to point out the correct picture card and make the appropriate response.

# WORD SAFARI

- * Pronounce
- Spell
- Give a rhyme
- Give the opposite
- Use in a sentence
- Use in a question

BEGIN

END

*Use a different colour for each task. These colours correspond with the colours on the die.

7. Play is continued in this manner until all members of the team have had their turn to spin the candy cane.

8. Team with highest number of points wins. If less than 5 players are playing the game, play is continued in the above manner for a specific time. Player with the highest number of points is the winner.

Variations

1. More advanced students could be asked to read the word indicated by the candy cane. Students could answer by giving the location of the pictures, e.g., "The doll is between the elf and the sled."

## Twenty Questions

Objectives: To practice question forms
To practice vocabulary items, descriptive words, prepositions

Number of Players: Whole class

Materials: None

Procedure: A student is sent out of the room while the others decide on an object. This may be an object in the room or a vocabulary item from a current unit of work. The student returns and may ask up to 20 questions to guess the name of the object. Encourage the students to ask questions about the object, e.g., "Is it big (small, red, blue, etc.)?" "Is it on the floor (ceiling, wall, etc.)?" before guessing the name.
e.g., "Is it the clock (blackboard, etc.)?"

Variation

2 students are sent out of the room to decide on an object, and the class members try to guess it by asking questions.

## Word Safari

Objective: To provide practice in word recognition, word analysis, comprehension and sentence formation

Number of Players: 2 - 6

Materials: 1 "word safari" gameboard
1 set of word cards
2 dice - 1 with numbers 1 - 6 on each face
- 1 with a different color on each face
(Colors should correspond to the color code on the gameboard.)
markers for each player

Procedure:

1. Each player throws the numbered die. Player with the highest number goes first. Play rotates to the right of the first player.

2. The first player takes the top card. He throws the colored die to find out what to do with the word on the card, e.g., if the die lands with the blue side up he must pronounce the word.

3. If the player answers correctly he throws the numbered die to find out how many spaces he can move. (Teachers may wish to write special directions in the squares on the gameboard.)

4. Any player may challenge the correctness of the answer. The dictionary may be consulted to check the right answer.

5. Play ends when there is a winner. The winner is the first player to reach the end.

Variation

Students may be required to do other things with words, e.g., divide into syllables, give a synonym, etc.

More games for language development may be found in:

Dorry, Gertrude Nye. Games for Second Language Learning. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1966.

Lee, W. R. Language-Teaching Games and Contests. London: Oxford University Press, 1965.

Wagner, Guy et al. Language Games: Strengthening Language Skills With Instructional Games. New York: Macmillan, 1974.

RESOURCES

Basic Classroom Aids

1. Picture file (see page 168)

2. Models
   - Doll house with furniture
   - Transportation - cars, trucks, etc.
   - Animals - farm, zoo, pets
   - Store - food cartons, play money, price tags, food models, etc.
   - Dolls and doll clothes
   - Tools
   - Kitchen utensils
   - Fire Station
   - Gas Station
   - Post Office

3. Dress-up Box

4. Felt Board and cut-outs

5. Puppets (see page 167).

Audio-Visual Aids

1. Language Master or Tutorette (Bell and Howell Canada Ltd.) and commercial or teacher-made cards

2. Cassette Player and commercial or teacher-made tapes

3. Record Player

4. Records
   - Electric Company Series
   - Osman and Mac.
   - Hap Palmer. Feelin' Free: A Personalized Approach to Vocabulary and Language Development. Educational Activities, (Box 392, Freeport, N. Y., 11520) AR517.
   - _____. Getting to Know Myself. Educational Activities, 10-AR543.
   - _____. Learning Basic Skills Through Music, Volume I. Activity Records, AR514.
     Volume II. Activity Records, AR522.
     Vocabulary. Activity Records, AR521.
   - Hap and Martha Palmer. Witches' Brew: A Pot Full of Songs for Oral Language Development. Educational Activities, AR576.

Fred Penner. The Cat Came Back. Meow Records, MEOW-01.
Raffi. Singable Songs for the Very Young. Troubadour, TR-002.
More Singable Songs. Troubadour, TR-004.
The Corner Grocery Store. Troubadour, TR-007.
Sharon, Lois and Bram. One Elephant, Deux Elephants. Elephant Records, LFN 78-01.
Smorgasbord. Elephant Records, LFN 79-02.
Mario Thomas and Friends. Free to be You and Me. Arista, AL 4003.

5. Films

*Multi-Culturalism Program. Between Two Worlds.
*National Film Board of Canada. Children of Canada Series.
Gurdeep Singh Bains, 106C 0176 307.
My Name is Susan Yee, 106C 0175 111.
Veronica, 106C 0177 287.
National Film Board of Canada. Children of the World Series. (Each film in the series features the life and living conditions of children in different countries in Asia, Africa and South America.)

*Available from the School Film Services, Instructional Media Services, Manitoba Department of Education.

For lists of films and suggested ideas for language development, see Erdelyi, T. and Epp, W. Films for the ESL Classroom. Manitoba Department of Education.

ESL Programs

Alexander, L. G. Look, Listen and Learn. Longman Canada, 1972. (Academic Press Canada distributor). (Elementary).

Broughton, Geoffrey. Go! Longman Canada. (Academic Press Canada distributor). (Primary).

Garcia, Mary H. and Gonzolez-Mena, Janet. The Big E. An English Language Development Program for the Primary Grades. Learning, Package I. Silver Spring, Maryland: Institute of Modern Languages, 1976. (Primary).

Gonzolez-Mena, Janet. Program for English Experiences. Silver Spring, Maryland: Institute of Modern Languages, 1975. (Pre-School and Kindergarten).

Mellgren, Lars and Walker, Michael. Yes! English for Children. Books A, B, C. Addison-Wesley, 1977. (Primary).

_____. Yes! A Young English Series. Books D, E, F. Addison-Wesley, 1978. (Upper Elementary).

Paulik-Sampson, Gloria. New Routes to English. Beginning Skills/One. Collier-Macmillan Canada, 1978. (Upper Elementary).

Slager, William R., coordinator. Core English. Levels 1-4. Ginn, 1971. (Workbooks, Wall Charts, Picture Cards, Puppets, Flannel Kit, Game and Song Book, Teacher's Manual). (Primary-Elementary).

Wardhaugh, Ronald et al. English Around the World, Levels 1-5. (Skills Book, Activities Book with Supplementals Lists, Posters, Display Cards, Teacher's Guidebook). Scott, Foresman and Co., 1975. (Upper Elementary).

Language Development Materials

Boehm, Ann H. Boehm Resource Guide for Basic Concept Teaching. New York: The Psychological Corporation, 1976.
The kit contains a Teacher's Manual and duplicating masters concept cards, game cards, etc., to develop basic concepts. (Primary).

Caniglia, J. et al. Apple Tree, A Patterned Program of Linguistic Expansion Through Reinforced Experiences and Evaluations.
The program covers the basic structures of the English language. (Upper Primary, Elementary).

Dunn, L. and Smith, J. Peabody Language Development Kits, (Levels P, 1, 2, 3). Toronto: Psycan Ltd. (101 Amber Street, Markham, Ontario, L3R 3B2).
These are multimedia kits containing records, models, puppets, pictures, etc., for developing concepts and skills. (Primary, Elementary).

Elementary ESL Resource Kit. Manitoba Department of Education, 1979.
The kit contains a teacher handbook of lesson plans and teaching tips, 8 theme teaching envelopes, a copy of The Big E, and Hap Palmer tapes. (Primary).

Hillerich, Robert L. and Johnson, Timothy G. Ready Steps. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1978.
This activity based language development and reading readiness kit contains pictures, records, duplicating masters and diagnostic tests. (Primary).

Language Development Cards. Group A Concept Cards, Group B Vocabulary Development and Auditory Perception Cards. Oklahoma City: The Economy Company, 1968.
Package contains full-color pictures to stimulate oral discussion with children needing broader language experiences. (Primary).

Reader's Digest Play Skills Kit. Montreal: Reader's Digest, 1972.
The kit contains Lotto and Bingo games, 2 vinyl road games, plastic models of letters, numbers, shapes, etc., and a 24-page guide illustrating 66 games and activities. (Primary).

Reader's Digest Reading Skill Builders. Pleasantville, N.Y.: Reader's Digest Educational Division.
The series consists of workbook-type readers from grade 2 to grade 8 reading levels. The stories are selected from Reader's Digest and are varied in subject matter and form. Quizzes and other activities follow each selection. (Upper Elementary).

Reading Materials

Blance, Ellen and Cook, Ann. The Monster Books, Sets 1 and 2. Glendale, California: Bowmar, 1973-76.

Dr. Suess. Beginner Books. Random House.

Mackay, David, ed. Breakthrough to Literacy. (Sets A - E). Longmans, (Academic Press Canada, distributor), 1971.

Martin, Bill, Jr. and Bragon, Peggy. Instant Readers. (Levels 1 - 4, cassette tapes available). Toronto: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1972.

_____. Sounds of Language Readers. Toronto: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1972-74.

Methuen Caption Books. (6 sets - red, yellow, blue, green, purple, orange). Methuen, 1974.

Methuen Instant Readers. (Set of 24 titles). Methuen, 1977.

Methuen Read It Yourself Books. (Sets A and B). Methuen, 1973.

Moyle, Donald and Sykes, Eileen. Talk-a-Rounders. (20 titles). Edinburgh: Holmes McDougall, 1975. (Gage Educational distributor).

Thorn, Elizabeth A. and Irwin, Joan M. The Reading Corner. (Levels 1-5 to accompany Expressways Readers -- 10 titles at each level). Gage Educational, 1977-78.

## Dictionaries

Beginning Dictionary for Children - Houghton-Mifflin.
Beginning Dictionary for Children - Teacher's Guide - Houghton-Mifflin.
Beginning Dictionary for Children - Duplicating Masters, Level A - Houghton-Mifflin.

The Canadian Dictionary for Children - Collier Macmillan, Canada Ltd.
The Canadian Dictionary for Children, Teacher's Manual - Collier Macmillan Canada Ltd.

My First Picture Dictionary - Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Forsman, 1970.
My Pictionary - Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Forsman, 1970.

Best Word Book Ever, New York: Golden Press, 1974 - Richard Scarry.
Busy Busy World, New York: Golden Press, 1965 - Richard Scarry.
Story Book Dictionary, New York: Golden Press, 1966 - Richard Scarry.
ABC Word Book, Toronto: Random House, 1971 - Richard Scarry.

## Games

Anagrams
Backpack: A Language Development Game. Developmental Learning Materials (DLM), 1220 Ellesmere Road, #15-17 Scarborough, Ontario, M1P 2X5.
Bingo
Check the Deck: Teachers' Collaborative, 2025 Okeechobee Boulevard, West, Palm Beach, Florida, 33401.
Concentration
Junior Scrabble
Leaping Letters
Monopoly
Probe
Silly Syntax - Houghton-Mifflin
Spill and Spell
Talk'n Take - Houghton-Mifflin
White Water Raft Trip: Opposites and Homonyms Game. DLM.
Teacher-made games are available on loan from the ESL Resource Center, Manitoba Department of Education.

## Human Resources

Department of Education has consultant services available in the area of curriculum development and curriculum services for teachers of students from minority language and cultural groups. Native Education: 786-0284; Immigrant Education: 786-0288.

Universities have faculty members involved in training teachers in cross-cultural education and language development for students of minority group backgrounds.

The International Centre (772-0346) has orientation, counselling, referral, translation, and interpreter services for "New Comers". Some of their services are also available to schools.

Ethnic Associations have education committees or individuals who are willing to provide information and assistance to schools. Names of contact persons and phone numbers of ethnic associations may be obtained from the Community Folk Arts Council of Winnipeg, telephone: 944-9793.

Consulates in Winnipeg are helpful in providing information about the countries from which many students come.

## Local Resources

1. Many schools have personnel who are active in ethnic associations and who speak languages other than English. Divisions could prepare lists of language services that are available to their schools.

2. Community leaders from minority groups may be helpful in identifying resources for the schools.

## Conferences

SPEAQ - Societe pour l'enseignement de l'anglais (langue seconde) au Ouebec.- Conference held annually in June.
TESL - Teachers of English as a Second Language - Conference held annually in Toronto in late October or early November.
TEAL - Teachers of English as an Additional Language - Conference held annually in British Columbia in March.
TESOL - Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages - Conference held annually in late February, early March, International Conference.
ATESL - Alberta Teachers of English as a Second Language - Conference held annually in Alberta in November.
MMLA - Manitoba Modern Languages Association, Special Area Groups
SAG Conference - held annually in Winnipeg in October.
TESL - Conference held annually in February at the University of Manitoba, Winnipeg (Manitoba).

NOTE: Some associations publish conference proceedings.

Books

About Indians: A Listing of Books, 4th ed. Ottawa: Department of Indian and Northern Affairs, 1977.

Ashworth, Mary. Immigrant Children and Canadian Schools. Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 1975.

Braun, Carl and Froese, Victor. An Experience - Based Approach to Language and Reading. Baltimore: University Park Press, 1977.

Cheyney, Arnold B. Teaching Children of Different Cultures in the Classroom - A Language Approach, 2nd ed. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1976.

Finocchiaro, Mary. English as a Second Language, From Theory to Practice, 2nd ed. New York: Regents, 1974.

Gibson, Betty. Early Childhood: A Time for Learning, A Time for Joy. Manitoba Department of Education, 1979.

LaRoque, Emma. Defeathering the Indian. Toronto: Book Society of Canada, 1975.

People of Native Ancestry. Toronto: Ontario Ministry of Education.

Saville-Troike, Muriel. Foundations for Teaching English as a Second Language - Theory and Method for Multicultural Education. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1976.

Staffer, Russell. The Language Experience Approach to the Teaching of Reading. New York: Harper and Row, 1970.

Thonis, Eleanor Wall. Teaching Reading to Non-English Speakers. Toronto: Collier-Macmillan, 1970.

Tough, Joan. The Development of Meaning. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1977.

_____. Listening to Children Talking. London: Ward Lock Educational, 1976.

_____. Talking and Learning. London: Ward Lock Educational, 1977.

Journals

English Language Teaching - Subscription Department, Oxford University Press, Press Road, Neasden, London N. W10, England.

Language Arts - NCTE, 1111 Kenyon Road, Urbana, Illinois, 61801.

Reading Teacher - I.R.A., 800 Barksdale Road, P. O. Box 8139, Newark, Delaware, 19711.

TESL Talk - Ontario Citizenship Branch, 24th Floor, 400 University Avenue, Toronto, Ontario.

TESOL Quarterly - TESOL, Georgetown University, 455 Nevils Boulevard, Washington, D.C., 20057.